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DE BOW'S REVIEW

AND

Industrial Resources, Statistics, etc

DEVOTED TO

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS,
POLITICAL ECONOMY, EDUCATION, GENERAL LITERATURE, ETC.

Commerce is King.

EDITED BY J. D. B. DE BOW.

VOLUME XXVI.

NEW-ORLEANS AND WASHINGTON CITY.

1859.

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VOL. XXVI, O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 1, N. S.

ART. I.—OVERLAND AND OCEAN ROUTES BETWEEN THE SOUTH- WEST AND EUROPE.

HOW TO MAKE THE CITY OF NORFOLK AN EMPORIUM.

As it is the nature of commerce to prefer the most direct line practicable, between production and consumption, it is important to reflect, that the general introduction of railroads, and the application of steam to transportation on land and water, have not only made a radical change in the channels and marts of trade, but have enounced certain principles of commercial action, to which all local interests must conform if they hope to participate in their advantages. These principles are :

1. Commerce will prefer those routes which combine in the highest degree the advantages of rapid, certain, and economical transportation.

2. If two routes are precisely equal in speed and certainty, commerce will prefer the most economical.

3. But if one route surpasses others in speed and certainty, all articles subject to competition, or liable to fluctuations of market price, will employ that route, although the cost of freight be greater, the additional freight being considered insurance paid for an early and certain delivery in market.

The precise value of speed and certainty cannot be reduced to a constant quantity, because the motives which influence men engaged in commerce are so various.

When the whole productions of the harvest are on the move, the farmer or planter cannot afford to employ a route of transportation which may throw his crop upon a market glutted by competition. From similar causes men prefer paying telegraph rates to postage, employ the railroad instead of the canal, and engage the express to hasten the railroad. Besides,

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portable produce of the interior has, under modern improvements, developed some important characteristics. Possessing an ascertained value in the interior markets, protected from loss by the insurance offices, capable of direct and immediate transportation and delivery at the ultimate market; always advised by telegraph of what the value of the commodity in that market actually is—any article of produce becomes the representative of an ascertained and agreed value, which may be realized at any point the owner may desire. Hence exportable products not only become a basis of domestic exchanges of the most desirable character—since the value is made at any moment to accompany the transfer—but, through their perfect safety and capacity for immediate delivery, they become, in fact, a medium of currency as well as of exchange. We offer a specific illustration: a merchant of Cincinnati wishes to make a remittance to purchase goods at the East. He invests in Western produce, ships, insures, and takes a bill of lading. These evidences of a value on its way to market can be realized at any point, by the simplest forms of commercial negotiation.* It is impossible, then, to tabulate the relative value of time when we see who employ the various commercial routes; but it is clear that so much of the more precious commodities are willing to pay for superior speed and certainty, as to have transferred the most valuable business to the fast lines, leaving but the more bulky and cheaper articles to the slow

routes; the comparative advantages of the various ocean routes also enter into the choice of ways from the producing interior markets of Europe; and as all ocean routes are equally rapid, and the same motive power may be applied on each, comparative eligibility is determined by the rate of freight they offer, and the despatch with which they can forward the exports brought by the overland routes. Upon these principles, the overland and ocean lines become branches of the same route, between production and consumption.

It may be said incidentally, that the conversion of the agricultural products of a country, so soon as they are ready for exportation, into currency and exchange has added, in fact, to the circulation and facility of transferring values from one section of the country to another. It is, therefore, that a fiscal agent, upon the national credit, and acting by the transfer of revenue balances from one part of the Union to another, is no longer "necessary," and the country freed from this addition to the patronage of the government, already excessive. Other unexpected results of internal improvement, tobacco, cotton, and flour, are the representatives of foreign and domestic exchange; while telegraph, express, and brokers, "regulate the currency" by keeping the circulation within a safe and useful limit.

tion, and any impediment upon either section operates to the injury of both.

Upon the theory stated, each ocean port in the United States will have a trade area, whose base will be the segment of longitude intercepted between the extreme western points of production seeking that port. The port will be the apex, and the trade lines concentrating there will triangulate the commerce destined for exportation, or for distribution and delivery.

In like manner, the markets of Europe being taken as an apex or magnetic point, the trade lines from the various ocean ports of the United States will coincide with the great ocean circle route to those markets. We shall thus find a complete system of overland lines bearing upon the ocean ports of the United States, and a system of routes crossing the ocean from those ocean ports, and concentrating at the chief markets of Europe.

Deriving an analogy from the physical laws which govern light, sound, or magnetism, we may affirm a theory for the polarization of commerce, subject to laws of incidence and reflection, and capable, with given elements of calculation, of being reduced also to invariable formulas.

Is it not then possible to conceive a series of competing trade lines, each departing from the regions of agricultural production, bearing steadily upon a common market, and each furnished with facilities for immediate transshipment at an ocean port, and transportation by a direct voyage across the ocean?

Can we not imagine commerce, freed from the shackles which have bound it, regarding each of these lines as a separate and complete way between production and consumption, and free to adopt that which presents the most favorable inducements? Let us suppose a cargo at St. Louis, destined for a European market. The shipper would compute and compare the relative advantages of the routes to Europe by Quebec, Boston, New-York, New-Orleans, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston. Each of these would be considered, with its overland and ocean lines, as a separate and competing way to market. The river and lake insurances, the freight and factorage, the delays, and cost of transshipment and exportation, with the probabilities of certain connection and shipment, would become the subject of an elaborate and exact examination upon each. The cargo would pursue that overland and ocean route which presented the highest summary of advantages, according to the principles which have been stated.

Of so much importance are the speed and certainty of deliv-

OVERLAND AND OCEAN ROUTES

to the shipper, that much of the Ohio trade is carried by to the Atlantic ports, although the lakes, the canal, and river, are open and competing ways. And though the exports from the city of New-Orleans are worth annually \$130,000, such are the delays of coastwise importation, that the expenditures to New-Orleans do not exceed \$35,000,000, remainder of the representative supply being forwarded land to the consumer.

It is thus that the New-York canal has not increased its age, since 1850. It retains chiefly those articles whose price does not fluctuate in market, and of which economy of weight is, therefore, of more consequence than speed or certainty of delivery. The parallel railroads have built up a tonnage half as great as that upon the canal; and upon analysis, are found to consist of the mail passengers, measurement of cargo, and, to a great extent, Western provisions.*

Upon similar principles, steamers and clipper vessels are employed at higher rates than dull sailing vessels. It is not common for shippers to take up a clipper at Calcutta, for example, at several pounds above the usual freights.

The principles enounced in this paper are neither claimed as new nor of original discovery. They result from the modern emancipation of commerce from restrictions which retarded its usefulness and extent to the most favored marts and most costly commodities.

The natural obstacles to transportation confined commerce to a few pathways, and taught men to believe it their interest to expose upon it as heavy burdens as it would bear.

There was at first the dangerous and costly portage by caravans, guarded by troops, with the tedious voyages of the ships of Tarshish.

The great "store cities" of Babylon, Palmyra, Seleucia, perished when the commands of a Ptolemy or Trajan opened a new way of commerce.†

Report of Commissioners, 1857.

The experience and astonishment at the magnificent ruins of Balbec, Palmyra, or Hama, and are impressed that Bussorah or Jerusalem has declined from its past splendor. Perhaps a modern divine explains the means employed by Almighty in part to fulfill the sacred prediction of their ruin: "The city of Palmyra, or Tadmor, was built by Solomon for the purpose of being a way-station for the caravan commerce carried on between Egypt and the Euphrates."

It was situated in the midst of the great Syrian Desert, but itself abounding with water, it was fortified and garrisoned for the protection of trade.

As Solomon," says the historian, "held the fortress of Thapsacus at the point where the caravans crossed the Euphrates, he could afford an escort of soldiers through to Tadmor and thence again to the western coast if required; or this, as well as for the aid and assistance at Tadmor, and for the advantages of

Then commerce crept around the Cape of Good Hope, and supplanted the prosperity of Geneva, and other entrepôt cities. It is known that Columbus was endeavoring to find a more eligible trade route to the Indies, when he discovered America.

These charges upon commerce, together with the loss of interest, and risk of deterioration, for the time consumed, were regarded as legitimate, because they were then deemed inevitable.

Thus it was once the established theory of municipal prosperity, that the citizens should be supported and enriched by a tax exacted upon commercial values *in transitu*.

Modern Europe inherited those burdensome exactions. In the feudal ages every castle was a fortress, and every baron exacted pay for protection, or permission to traverse his narrow domain.

The true design of the "castled crags of Droehenfel" was, no doubt, that their proprietor might bring a demi-culverin to bear upon a Rhine boat, and compel the payment of tribute.

Armed and titled robbers roamed through the country, supporting themselves by pillaging commerce upon pretence of protecting it. The merchants going to the first trade fairs held in Germany, were beset and despoiled; and it is well known that the injustice and exaction which the merchants experienced at every hand, led to the formation of those trade leagues among various cities in every part of Europe, which subsisted for centuries, and resisted successfully the might of monarchs.

The established exactions of the Barbary States, to which our own government for a short time submitted, but which it subsequently overthrew, were but an abuse of the same practice. The "Sound dues" of Denmark, the "head money"

its stores and khans, a toll might reasonably have been required; and this would cheerfully be paid as a return for actual benefits, and as a most gratifying exchange for the harassing, irregular, inordinate, and greedy exactions of the Arabian tribes."

But Palmyra became "an actual emporium for the products of the East, at which the caravans did not merely rest on their journey, but where they terminated it, deposited their lading, transacted their business with the factors from the West, who then took charge of the commodities, and bore them away to the Western markets at their leisure.

"Palmyra was a city of merchants, the factors of the Eastern trade who sold to the Romans and others the valuable products and precious commodities of India and Arabia, and who were so enriched by the traffic, that the place was proverbial for its luxury and wealth, and for the expensive habits of its citizens.

"Yet this splendid city, founded and subsisting upon the commerce conducted through her gates, fell with the change of that commerce, and became a ruin."—*Kitt's Daily Bible Illustrations.*

OVERLAND AND OCEAN ROUTES

ew-Grenada, and the transit tolls of New-Jersey, are relief the same barbaric idea.

deed, at one time commerce was a common spoil. Any igate prince could support his vices, by the torture of a Jewish merchants. Court favorites were complimented the monopoly of supplying public wants. Perpetual ters were given for ferries, bridges, and light-houses; e commercial usage sanctioned smaller, and, in many s, less justifiable impositions upon the public.*

, however, any one wishes to open at a leaf of the middle , let him look at Mexico. There the government robs the shant by heavy duties and forced loans. The lawless and rant citizens imitate the government. They rob the ence and plunder the *cargadores*. There, in the light he nineteenth century, may be seen a remittance of ie guarded by soldiers, or a pleasure excursion protected avaliers and servants, armed to the teeth. As all this nce and distrust discourages intercourse and the open stment of capital, is it surprising the commerce of Mex-should every year diminish?

he world, however, is awakening to the importance of owing commerce upon those cities which offer the best ities for conducting it. This alteration of trade lines, the loyment of mechanical industry, with a comparative ex- tion from commercial burdens, have raised many towns, irmingham, Liverpool, Havre, Bremen, Frankfort, to the rank in wealth and population.

As a specimen of these local exactions, we give the charges upon a vessel 8 tons, at the port of Hull, in England :

Pilotage from sea,.....	\$28 60
" to sea,.....	8 12½
Light dues,.....	96 24
Anchorage and jettage,.....	2 30
Dock dues,.....	231 82
Trinity House buoyage,.....	8 88

\$370 91½

these might be added, the "ancient and usual" charges for hostage, bal-etc.

aring charges at New-Castle, England, on an American vessel of 400 tons : lights, 61c. ; Life boats, 73c. ; Pier dues, \$8 07½ ; Night office, 48c. ; ington pier, \$1 21 ; Whitby pier, \$2 02½ ; River watch, \$2 02½ ; Rams-\$4 84 ; Trinity lights, \$54 55½ ; Tower dues on cargo and ship, \$8 84. , \$83 89.

and dues, collected by Denmark :

Raw cotton, per 100 pounds,.....	20 cents.
Rice, " " ".....	11 "
Raw tobacco, " " ".....	17½ "

l dues paid by American vessels, amounted to about \$75,000 per an-

The interior states of Europe have constructed railroads to the nearest outports, and most of them are repealing their transit tolls.* The course of trade has changed greatly. The German States, Switzerland, and Belgium, now communicate directly with the ocean by the ports of France, instead of by those of Holland and northern Europe. In consequence of this, the commerce of France has increased beyond precedent. In 1833, its annual exports and imports amounted in the aggregate to \$163,953,000, while in 1857, they had reached the immense sum of \$1,065,000,000. The ports of Havre and Marseilles have profited most by this immense increase.†

The Emperor of France has said, "The Empire is peace." Perhaps Trafalgar may be redeemed at Marseilles, and Waterloo avenged at Cherbourg.

It is a truism to say that the maritime supremacy of England is the talisman of her power and prosperity. She drove from the ocean the navies of Spain, Holland, and France. She seized and fortified the passes to every sea. Like Carthage, she employed the wealth of commerce to subsidize those whom she could not conquer. She acquired colonial possessions in every land, and her merchants everywhere bargain under the protection of her guns. This superior ability to protect her commerce, gave England for a long time a monopoly of the carrying trade. It was safe under her convoy; it might be plundered under a less formidable flag. London and Liverpool became the entrepôts of the world. Commerce cleared its accounts in their counting-rooms, and stored its commodities in their warehouses.

Hence we had become familiar with French, Swiss, and German goods imported into America from British ports and in British vessels; while New-York having secured a similar position on this side of the Atlantic, we see the commerce between the Southern States of Europe and America conducted by the most circuitous route, and employing agencies wholly unnecessary.

But, with the improvements in directness and speed of overland transportation, each of the seaport cities of the United States has furnished itself with the best facilities for securing a fair share of the exportation of produce, and the distribution and supply of manufactures and merchandise imported.

We have now the following trade lines competing for the commerce of the interior States:

1. The navigation of the Lakes and St. Lawrence, connecting Chicago with Quebec.

* See *Eclectic Review* for October, 1868.
 † *Reports of Customs* for 1857.

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2. The railroads and canal connecting Boston and New-York with the West.
3. The canal and railroads connecting Philadelphia with the West.
4. The Baltimore and Ohio railroads.
5. The Virginia and Ohio Railroad (incomplete).
6. The Virginia and Tennessee roads, connecting Norfolk and Memphis.
7. The Charleston and Savannah roads.
8. The Mobile and Chicago Railroad.
9. The Mississippi river.

The course of trade between the Trans-Alleghany interior and its markets, was once by way of the Mississippi and its tributaries to the ocean. This commerce almost circumnavigated the Atlantic States.

New-York penetrated to the lakes with her canal, and, as if by the touch of a wand, the great Northwest was developed.

Railroads now environ those lakes, and supersede, to a great extent, the canals. Boston, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, have opened a communication with the interior. Virginia, Georgia, Carolina, sought the central Southwest. Sections, which once communicated with their markets by the tortuous and tedious navigation of the Tennessee and Alabama rivers, now connect with the ocean ports of Norfolk, Charleston, and Savannah.

Among these competitors for the commerce of the interior, one of the most formidable is that from the Western lakes by the St. Lawrence. This affords, certainly, the shortest and most direct line from Chicago to Liverpool, and it will require all the enterprise and energy of New-York to retain the lake trade against it. The travel connections between Quebec and Chicago are of the most complete character, and the transit time not more than seventy hours. Vessels laden with Western produce pass from the great grain ports of the lakes to Liverpool without transshipment of cargo. Packet lines bring merchandise and immigrants from Europe, and distribute them over the whole Northwest. In a word, the best facilities exist for a direct commerce with Europe through the river St. Lawrence.

The city of New-York now receives the chief commerce of the interior by the most rapid and cheapest possible rates of transportation. This commerce pays no tribute to the interior ties through which it passes, and is subject to but small charge for factorage, deposit, or exportation. New-York fears to impose any transit tax which can be avoided, lest it should diminish the trade, or determine it to adopt some other route. *New-York has discarded the Arabian policy.*

In imitation of the conflict which has been going on between the producers and factors, elsewhere, may be mentioned the removal of impediments which local interests in our own State, not amenable to competition, had imposed upon the commerce of Virginia.

Among the first and most notorious, was that in which the Richmond and Fredericksburg Railroad resisted the right of the Legislature to allow the interior producers the privilege of going to market by any other road than it had provided. Under some peculiar idea of corporate sanctity, the authorities of that road have contended, that they were entitled to a perpetual and exclusive right to transport the people and products of a particular region, and that those people were guilty of moral wrong and legal injustice, in employing any other route, unless they should compound for that privilege by paying some transit tax to the monopoly road, when travelling upon another.

The Legislature and courts thought otherwise; and the inhabitants of the particular territory claimed by the discontented corporators, have been authorized to construct a competing line to the port of Richmond, and now come and go to market by any route they think proper.*

The James River and Kanawha Canal was made to terminate upon a summit elevated more than eighty feet above the port of Richmond. It constituted a dock for the delivery of interior productions into the hands of the factors. Having no connection with the shipping, except by a dray portage of nearly a mile, it subjected the commerce passing through Richmond to a transit tax, estimated in the aggregate at more than ninety thousand dollars per annum, exclusive of speculators' profit and factorage.

The extension of the Central R. and D. and Petersburg roads to their several wharves, upon navigable water, with the growing importance to production of a cheap and rapid delivery, compelled the lock connection between the former terminus of the canal and the port of Richmond. The same policy is now building the road from Richmond to York Harbor. Richmond will be thus enabled to send a cargo to sea with more certainty than heretofore, and will thus profit by improved commercial facilities.

* The advocates of this road have thought proper to attribute the decline in the bonds of Virginia to the want of confidence among capitalists enjoined by the act of legislature complained of. As the bonds of the State have sold at 110 *since* the passage of that act, the decline should be referred to some cause more modern, and a more probable reason.

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The Manassas Gap Railroad has been extended to an independent connection with the port of Alexandria, to avoid the delays of deposit and transshipment, and the Legislature has so favored the policy of through transportation, as to order that in any case in which the authorities of a city shall refuse permission to a railroad company to lay down a freight track within its corporate limits, the company shall be *ipso facto* authorized to construct its track *around* the city.

To guard against any interruption, delay, or cost of transshipment, upon the great trade route leading from the Southwest to the port of Norfolk, the charter of the roads forming this route were carefully protected against the tendency to impose charges upon commerce. This was effected by several provisions:

1. The roads are open to connection with other roads of similar gauge, at any points deemed advantageous.
2. The roads are required to connect with the canal, and with each other, without any extra charges, without delay or discrimination.
3. The State owns a preponderant interest in the stock of the roads, and has a representation adequate to protect the public interests.
4. The Legislature has reserved a right to modify the charter, whenever deemed necessary.

Under this system the commerce of the Southwest—and indeed of the whole State—may be conducted without any other charge, than a proper remuneration for the freight.

That this policy has become general, may be seen from the fact that all the railroads first constructed in the United States, imposed a transshipment and portage between the depot and wharf, as also a portage of passengers across the city streets. Competition has compelled the abandonment of this objectionable action, and they have, with few exceptions,* made a close connection by rail.

Such are a few evidences that commerce is emancipating itself from local impediments and exactions, and enacting the reforms which have been denounced. No wise merchant will regret what is not only inevitable but wise. The days of the "ore cities" have passed away, commerce spurning the restraints which nature, cupidity, or ignorance, had imposed upon

Savannah, one of the most enlightened and energetic cities of the South, subjects to a drayage of half a mile, some 300,000 bales of cotton, and much other representative value in return merchandise. Perhaps if this local toll were taken off, it would extend the trade area of the city to an extent that would more than reimburse its loss.

it, has changed its channels ; the clipper has displaced the lugger, the steamcar has superseded the camel.

Such is modern commerce, replete with advantages to the millions who produce and consume, fraught with loss only to the monopolist who sought to live upon the labor of others.

Adopting, then, the general principles and instructive examples which have been given, and applying them to our own more immediate and local interests, it is our purpose to examine and show—

1. That the city of Norfolk is seated upon the most direct overland and ocean routes between an extended production in the Middle, Southern, Western, and Southwestern States, and the ultimate European markets to which these products are destined ;

2. That Norfolk is the proper point for the concentration of these products, as well as for the distribution of the imports required in exchange. The Chesapeake Bay, lying for two hundred miles parallel with the Atlantic coast, has but the single outlet of the Capes of Virginia.

Between the capes and the city, distant only fifteen miles, lies the magnificent anchorage of Hampton Roads.

From the Capes of Virginia, the coast stretches south along the dangers of Cape Hatteras, Cape Lookout, and Cape Fear. From Norfolk to Charleston, a distance of nearly four hundred miles, the whole coast is hemmed by a sand-bar, impassable except by a few narrow and dangerous channels, and affording no port fit for the safe accommodation of a foreign trade.*

Thus for more than five hundred miles along the Atlantic coast, the Capes of Virginia furnish the only practicable communication with the ocean. Flanked by a range of coast so extended and inaccessible, except at the outlet in its immediate vicinity, possessing physical advantages unsurpassed in its harborage and location, Norfolk will not only command the trade area, mathematically due to it, but the commerce of an additional area which would prefer some shorter route to market, but is compelled to deflect from a direct line to the port of Norfolk for an outlet.

This immense concentration of trade will be better realized by looking in detail upon the lines now employed, or to be employed, in conveying to the seacoast the agricultural products of this trade area, or in supplying their return values in merchandise :

* For the amount of trade brought to the city of Norfolk from the great estuaries of Pamlico and Albemarle, as well as for the canals by which it is effected, see an interesting memoir, attributed to D. T. Bisbie, Esq., in De Bow's Review.

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1. The Baltimore road to Lake Erie.
2. Baltimore and Ohio road and its connections.
3. Chesapeake and Ohio canal.
4. Alexandria Railroad.
5. Virginia and Ohio (Central) Railroad (incomplete).
6. James River and Ohio canal.
7. Virginia and Tennessee Railroad.
8. Virginia and Kentucky Railroad (projected).
9. Virginia and Carolina Railroad.
10. The Dismal Swamp canal, conducting the railroad and river trade of Carolina.
11. The James and Potomac rivers.

As all these lines discharge their commerce through the bays of Virginia, they are clearly its tributaries. They amount in the aggregate to more than three thousand miles of railroad and canal, and will be sufficient, with their completed connections, to develop the entire trade area, and to conduct commerce.

We must refer to other publications for the value and variety of the staples produced within this area, and the wealth, intelligence and cultivation of its inhabitants. These will afford the great advantage of assorted cargoes for exportation, and of heavy and costly goods for importation.

With this view there is no city in the United States whose commercial position is so impregnable, or whose commercial destinies so prosperous, as those of the city of Norfolk.

But since it still remains to organize these advantages which nature, science, and interior enterprise, have combined to produce, it is proper to place before those interested in the important consummation, the obstacles with which they have to contend.

We have heretofore enumerated the chief trade lines by which the producing regions of the Western and Northwestern States connect themselves with the principal markets of Northern Europe. We have also shown the circuitous course by which the productions of that region are supplied to the ports of Southern Europe.

Among the cities which concentrate the commerce of those trade lines, and supply most of their foreign imports, New-York is the most formidable competitor of Norfolk. The want of commercial organization on the part of the South, compels much of its productions to go to New-York for concentration and export, and, with other causes to which we will hereafter advert, have given her a larger trade than is properly due to her position.

We may add to these advantages that the incidental result

of controlling the import trade gives to New-York the collection of three fourths of the federal duties, and the deposit of a large amount of federal treasures ; besides, she has the monopoly of the California gold.

She thus fixes the par of currency and exchange, and the balance of both is generally in her favor.

The facilities of internal communication which enable New-York to distribute the merchandise imported, enable her also to offer the nearest and cheapest route to the foreign immigrants who are seeking the gift lands of the Government in the Northwest.

With these advantages is combined the incidental command of shipping, which enables her to offer cheap freights and immediate transportation to any part of the world. No commodity can be brought into her market, which does not find a purchaser ; no vessel need sail from her port without a cargo. No city can support a foreign commerce unless it has return cargoes, for otherwise the rate of out-freights must pay for a voyage in ballast home, or to some other port for a cargo. New-York can thus effect a communication between production and consumption with less cost and delay than other cities which lie more immediately upon the geodetic line between those two interests.

But does it therefore follow that it is impossible to regain from New-York that share of commerce to which Norfolk is from her position entitled ?

Does it result that, because we fearlessly measure the muscle and powers of an antagonist, we must be necessarily conquered in the combat ? By no means.

Our preparation for the conflict has been deliberately and effectually made. The materials provided have been enumerated. They are abundantly adequate to the purpose for which they were designed. We may digress to observe, that these materials consist not only in the advantages enumerated, but in the total change of policy which has accompanied it. The physical has dethroned the metaphysical system in the South. The remedies of material progress have superseded the mere assertion of abstract rights. Those rights will hereafter be asserted through the medium of the constitutional ability to enforce them.

But to render these materials available in the coming commercial contest, will require the combination of all our efforts and resources. It will require as a preliminary to that conflict, that we sacrifice to the success of a common enterprise all those rivalries and jealousies which have embarrassed the

South, and which have constituted, perhaps, the chief obstacles to our success.

It may be stated in this connection, that the city of Norfolk has been named as the competitor of New-York, because she is the gate-keeper of the Chesapeake. She is no more worthy of favor than any of the numerous cities scattered through the vast area which go to sea through the portals, of which she holds the key. She has, perhaps, done less than many of them. It is not for her peculiar advantage, but for that of all, that we have advocated her nomination as an entrepôt. She has been named as a symbol signifying the common interest of all.

The Capes of Virginia stand toward the cities within the area trading through them, as the Balize does to the cities of the Mississippi valley going to sea through that outlet.

These cities were once on the verge of a war with Spain, because she revoked their right of deposit, and condemned them to conduct a separate commerce with foreign markets.

They now store all their products intended for exportation at New-Orleans, and receive their representative value, to a great extent, through the same agency. In like manner, the cities of Chicago, Buffalo, Cincinnati, employ the city of New-York.

The cities of Baltimore, Richmond, Alexandria, Petersburg, Raleigh, Nashville, and Louisville, should unite in making Norfolk the great entrepôt for the combination and export of their produce, and for the receipt and distribution of their imports.

The cities of the Chesapeake should harmonize in this great object, and their success is certain. If they attempt a separate commerce, we should see a procession of vessels passing along the same track, and each carrying a fractional cargo, when one might carry the whole. A few such trips will decide the experiment, and each city must relapse into a dependence upon New-York, or bestow their patronage to build up Norfolk.

Having thus impressed upon the interior cities, and the seaport which they may constitute the entrepôt of their trade, the importance of a free transit, and of forming a combination, or trade league, for the purpose of establishing a direct trade with Europe, let us consider the means by which we may *organize an export trade*.

This will render necessary the adoption of several measures of detail.

1. *The overland lines connecting the city of Norfolk with*

the interior, must transport, at as low freights, and with as much certainty and speed, as any competing lines.

2. The cities upon these trade lines must despatch the commerce, without transit charge or local profit.

3. The city of Norfolk must furnish facilities of deposit, exportation, and importation, equal to any other competing city.

The principles laid down render it *indispensable to a direct trade abroad, that there should be a direct trade at home.*

Unless, then, these Chesapeake cities shall, with a magnanimous wisdom, resolve to contribute whatever of local profit, or of transit charge, above a fair compensation for freight, which they might exact upon commerce *in transitu*, and unless the common outport and entrepôt shall renounce the unnecessary burden which so much embarrasses trade, and allow a free deposit and transshipment of exports and imports, any attempt to organize the overland and ocean route to Europe, by way of Norfolk, must prove a failure.

As this proposition may be thought to involve too great a sacrifice, and therefore be received with disapproval by many cities, which consider themselves entitled to a local and speculative profit upon the trade which passes by them, it will become them to reflect, that one city, seated upon a trade line, is as much entitled to these profits as another; that, if each exacts its interests in this respect, the aggregate exactions will determine trade to pursue some other competing line; that, therefore, each should subscribe its local exaction to the common good. We think it may be shown, that its dividend of advantages from this policy will surpass its special profit upon the other.

With the view of reconciling their interior and intermediate interests to a policy, which is inevitable, it is proper to assert and attempt the demonstration of the extreme proposition, that, *the interests of all cities situated upon trade lines will be promoted by the free and uninterrupted passage of export and import freights.*

The increased facility for transportation has increased the wealth and enlarged the population of modern cities, not because it has added to their local charges or speculative profits upon commerce, but because it has increased the amount and values for which these cities furnish the representative supplies. Hence, if the values of commerce are doubled, or quadrupled, the mechanic and the merchants upon the route are *enabled to exchange the products of their skill and enterprise in the same increased proportion.* It is clear, that the profits *of these interests will be greater, as they are more legitimate,*

than the exactions of transit or factorage. Every charge, or obstacle, then, that tends to keep these values from passing through or being negotiated in a city, to that extent deprives the great industrial interests of an opportunity to exchange their fabrics.

It should be remembered that it is of no consequence to the producer whether his tobacco, cotton, or flour, has been charged on its way to market with freight, drayage, storage, or whether he has by demurrage lost the opportunity of reaching the market at the proper time. These all constitute a deduction from the net amount to the credit of production. If the aggregate of these burdens be permanent and sufficiently large, the producer may be decided to discontinue a culture which does not remunerate; if they may be avoided by pursuing some better way to market, he will do so.

As the producer prefers to export by the trade line which affords him the most certain command of market prices, and of course the best net profits upon industry and capital, he purchases his merchandise for consumption at the point where he can do so at the smallest charge. The same motive, then, that makes him sell his produce in the most distant market, will make him purchase his supplies at the one nearest home. If he wants only a personal supply, the merchant of the interior city having laid in a larger stock of such articles as the producer needs, than the latter would purchase in a more distant city, is enabled to sell him those articles cheaper than he could purchase in the more distant city with the time and expense of going after the articles added. That is, the merchant of the interior city could go to market and purchase 100 sacks of salt with the same time and expense, and at a lower rate per sack, than the producer could ten sacks. The interior merchant can then afford to sell the producer ten sacks at a better bargain than the latter could go and purchase them.

If a larger stock of merchandise be required, we presume the best bargains could be bought as at present where there are the best stocks. If it is our object to prepare for their purchase in Europe, it must be to the advantage of the consumer. But interior cities have the advantage of cheap materials, provisions, and fuel, with a more immediate vicinity to the consumer. While, then, more costly goods might be bought in the larger markets of the United States or Europe, all articles of a cheaper and heavier nature would be procured nearer home, because they would at least save the charges of a more distant transportation. The city of Wheeling has, among others, illustrated the advantage of interior manufactures.

The merchant going East buys there his iron, wooden, and glass ware, as he purchases the cheap and excellent cotton and woollen goods of Baltimore, and such domestic utensils as are manufactured in that city.

The city of Cincinnati affords the best specimen of an interior city which exchanges its manufactures and goods for trade value, without imposing any charges upon commerce sufficient to discourage it.

Commerce at Cincinnati is an act of simple barter: the merchant taking the exportable produce at its value in the ultimate market—less freight and insurance—and giving in exchange manufactures or other merchandise at the price in a more distant market—charges added. The change of ownership in the exportable produce marks a mere collateral security for the value advanced.

It is this exchange of values which alone affords a legitimate source of prosperity for the population of a city. Local exactions and speculative profits upon commerce are delusive. The merchant and the mechanic create value, or add to the existing worth of raw material, by their capital and skill. The citizen who imposes charges upon commerce, creates nothing thereby, but discourages trade, and diminishes production. He is an enemy of the common prosperity.

If, then, any class contends that they are entitled, like Arabs, to a share of everything that passes, it will be better far for the capitalists and individual interests to pay them out of the municipal treasury, than allow a tax which excludes from the city the common aliment of all.

If the cities upon the various trade lines shall be convinced that it is either inevitable, or indispensable to their prosperity, that they should speed the trade, and abstain from local exactions, it will next become necessary to so adjust the tariff upon the whole overland line, that it shall offer lower freights, with, at least, equal certainty and celerity of delivery, with any other route competing for the same trade. This will prevent much difficulty. Some sections of these overland lines have been constructed at an immense, and, to some extent, at an unnecessary cost. Those who aided to construct them, will naturally desire to realize dividends, and will not readily comprehend that they are to be indemnified by incidental results, in which cheaper roads, belonging to the same line, may participate, without making similar sacrifices.

To secure the co-operation of such interests, we must rely upon the argument in favor of *through* trade. If this argument does not convince, we must remind them that it is in vain to impose exactions that may be avoided; and that it is

the destiny of interior cities to employ their people in manufactures, or decline. We can see no alternative. To secure the advantage of an exchange of products, may require a sacrifice of road dividends as of less importance than commercial profits.

Each Atlantic city of the United States is now furnished with an overland line to the interior. There is a common competition among them. It has been said, on behalf of New-York, that it would be better to work her canals and railroads at slow remuneration, than lose the trade which they convey. Baltimore has built a road at an immense expense. It is subject to great disadvantages of grade and curvature. She is a manufacturing and mercantile city of great and growing prosperity. These interests are of so much importance to her, that so long as the great trade stream of the West shall continue to pass through her port, she may obtain cheap fuel, provisions, and raw material, and furnish fabrics in exchange for a large portion of the export value. To secure these advantages, she is compelled to allow Western produce a free passage, without local charge for transshipment or factorage.

Now, as the owner of this great thoroughfare, Baltimore would, if forced by competition, not only discard every local objection, but charge the reduction of freight on important articles upon others better able to bear it. Yet, if driven by necessity to choose between losing their trade values altogether, or transporting some of them at a loss, she would not hesitate to choose the latter alternative, and support the road by public taxation. But this can only be necessary in another form for assessing a trade area which will always pay the expenses of maintenance and transportation. The rates of charge will ascend to a rate equal to the interest on the cost of the best and cheapest competing road to the same interior, the city, of course, sinking any excess of unnecessary cost.

The State of Virginia has united with corporate and private interests in the construction of most of her leading improvements. The administration of these improvements has been, however, committed to the enterprising communities which look the most active agency in organizing and constructing them.

In most respects the interests of the commonwealth and of these communities is identical. Both are stockholders, interested in the receipt of dividends. Both are interested in the prosperity of the community which manages the work. If the positions advanced in this paper have been demonstrated, both are interested in through trade and free trade; but the *commonwealth* has a peculiar interest to represent in two par-

ticulars. It is a sovereign, relying for its independence upon the strength and prosperity of the whole body politic. It has employed the common means for works that are to a certain extent of local advantage. It must then see that the great interest of interior production is developed to the last cultivable acre, and also that the commercial interest shall be made available to the greatest extent possible.

To secure the full development and representation of these interests, the commonwealth has reserved a right of representation in the corporation to which it has subscribed. It has also established a Board of Public Works, to protect the common interest by a general and comprehensive policy.

The commonwealth has reserved a right to execute this policy, by modifying or amending the charters granted to the joint stock works at its pleasure.

It is plainly the interest of the stockholders to reduce the expense of maintaining and working the railroad, as far as possible; and, if practicable, it would be well to consolidate several sections under a single administration; for there is no reason why the commerce should incur the expense of a separate administration at short intervals. The consolidation might be, perhaps, effected by one road taking a lease of others, or by sale and consolidation of stocks.

But it is the duty of the commonwealth so to regulate the schedules of connection and tariff of charges, as that production shall be developed, and foreign commerce encouraged.

Taking any section of the trade line from the city of Norfolk to the Mississippi, it cannot be supposed that a tariff high enough to remunerate the builders of the road would prevent the transportation of interior productions, unless we admit that such a section had been built at an extravagant cost; for neither the distance, the physical obstacles, nor the proper cost of construction, are so great as those of competing works constructed for the same purpose.

Assuming, then, that a bushel of wheat may be carried from Cincinnati or Nashville, over the Virginia route, to New-York or Liverpool, at as low a rate as over any competing route, the charge of transportation upon the wheat should be so adjusted as that those sections of the route crossing the mountains and the Piedmont country, shall receive the largest proportion per mile of the whole freight. The other sections shall receive according to the relative value of the service performed by them.

There is an advantage in working railroads which may be turned to the advantage of all parties interested. It is this: There are articles of commercial importance, which, either

from their low value, or the distance which they have to be borne, cannot pay a remunerating freight *per se*.

The tobacco of the West will afford an illustration. The exports from New-Orleans are generally from 75,000 to 100,000 hds. This is sold at shipping prices and the manufacturers' profits, to Europeans. A railroad, connecting the city of Louisville with the Virginia and Tennessee railroad, would afford the means of sending the greater part of the leaf tobacco now exported from New-Orleans through the State of Virginia for export. The cities of Lynchburg, Richmond, and Petersburg, lie upon this line of transportation. They are extensively engaged in manufacturing tobacco. They could give much better prices for the leaf than those who only buy to export. These cities, then, as stockholders in the Virginia and Kentucky roads, would be enabled to purchase and work Western tobacco, and the incidental profits upon the manufacture would richly indemnify them for a low rate of transportation.*

We will take coal and cotton as another illustration: now, the first of these articles is of infinite consequence to every city. It is also of value to the State, since the development of a coal region increases the taxable value of the lands. The second of these articles tends to build up a manufacturing and commercial interest, while its exchanges strengthen the currency of those who deal in and export it. But the railroad carries many other articles, and receives compensation for other services, which will enable it to transport tobacco, coal, or cotton, without profit, or even at a loss, while the dividends are derived from the sources indicated.

We may then suppose a road from the City of Richmond to the coal fields of Kenawha, the freights on which were so high that coal could not be carried to market upon that route. Or, we can suppose that cotton may be carried down the Mississippi and around the coast at a lower rate than can be afforded by the Virginia and Tennessee roads.

If, then, the inducements to develop the coal region, and organize a commerce in cotton, are sufficient, it would become the policy of the joint stock proprietors to provide for through transportation without change of burden cars, and without any delay or transshipment. They would reduce the freight

* We are aware the old fallacy may be revived, that the importation of this tobacco would diminish the value of that produced in Virginia. Of this we have no fear. The demand for tobacco is increasing more rapidly than the supply can be enlarged. If more Western tobacco is manufactured, it will increase the European demand for leaf, and perhaps may dispose Europe to repeal the unjust and oppressive duties which she now imposes upon tobacco, when she has reduced those duties upon almost all other agricultural productions of the United States.

upon the favored articles to the point required by competition or development, and rely for dividends upon the mail, travel, merchandise, and perhaps the gold of California. But if it was thought that the interest of the commonwealth and its copartners comes in conflict, and objections shall be made by the latter to this discrimination for development, it would certainly satisfy the most romantic sense of justice, if the commonwealth should account to her copartners for the loss occasioned by the reduction of any through freight below the cost of transportation.

The reserved power of the commonwealth would exonerate it from any imputation of bad faith, while the motives which induced the policy would secure it against ultimate loss.

But if such be the policy recommended and enforced for the adoption of the interior cities, of how much greater importance is it that the ocean part which receives and conducts this commerce should coöperate in the same spirit.

The city of Norfolk, as the great entrepôt of a most important trade line, should offer as great facilities for business as any competing outpost. She should bring the rail to the hold of the vessel. She should furnish depots and warehouses without any other than the lowest charges, and she should emancipate commerce from those innumerable exactions which, upon one pretence or another, like vermin, fasten upon and exhaust its vitality.

If Norfolk wishes to receive the benefit of her legitimate trade lines, she must set the example of contributing her share of the common service. Her advantages will be incidental. She will find and fit out vessels. The regularity of her communications with foreign markets with her facilities of domestic distribution, will bring return cargoes of merchandise which she may furnish at a legitimate profit in exchange for the export value. To perform this great service, she will require neither large capital nor extensive shipping. The values collected in her port constitute capital, as it will attract all the shipping of the world. New-York, seeing this immense *debouchure* of trade so near her wharves, will detail men, ships, and capital, to conduct the commerce, and reap the allotted reward. This will strengthen the resources of Norfolk, and in due time enable her to establish her commercial independence by means, to some extent, contributed by her rival.

Having thus endeavored to explain the proper organization of an export trade by means of the cheap, expeditious, and free transportation of through freight over the trade lines of the *Chesapeake*, it will be next proper to provide for

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THE ORGANIZATION OF AN IMPORT TRADE.

To effect this important object, it will be necessary :

1. To combine the merchandise intended for all the cities which have determined to deposit their export productions at Norfolk.

2. That each trade-line terminating at Norfolk shall provide for receiving and forwarding direct to its destination all merchandise intended for the interior cities.

3. The trade-lines shall adopt the express system, and the aggregate of ocean and inland freights shall be payable on delivery of the consignment.

4. The duties upon imports, instead of being in all cases exacted at the customhouse at Norfolk, shall follow the consignment so as to allow it to go forward to the interior without impediment. To carry out this policy, new custom-houses could be established at such interior cities as shall require them.

These regulations, though apparently unimportant, are yet essential to remove a principal obstacle to a direct importation. The Nashville merchant who would like to purchase a stock of goods in a European market, and import them through Norfolk or Charleston, must employ an agent to receive them at the outport, pay the freights, import duties, and forward them to the interior. This involves an exhibition of the invoices, with the prolonged delay of discharging, storage and forwarding. Perhaps the necessity of a personal visit and explanation on the part of the owner. The delay, vexation, and expenses of this transaction, perhaps, determine the merchant to buy his next stock in New-York, where all these services are rendered, and all advances made by a jobber, at a moderate rate of profit upon them.

If, however, a system can be organized, by which all the cities which trade through the Cape outlet shall order and import their goods into the port of Norfolk upon the same vessel—the several trade lines shall receive the separate consignments and express them to their places of destination, and collect upon delivery the aggregate of all the charges which have been allowed each consignment—if, in a word, they will do what every express delivery line in Europe and America is daily doing—this combination of imports will make cargoes, and the interior merchant may order and receive goods from Europe with more convenience than he could have done a few years since from New-York.

This combination of cargoes out and in will organize a direct trade with foreign countries. The advantages derived by the *portations and communities* interested in this overland and

ocean express system, will consist in the enlargement and extension of commerce. The considerations which repay the State for her wise, liberal, and impartial policy, will be the increase of wealth and numbers; the prosperity and content of her citizens; and the materials of political and physical power adequate to maintain her rights in any condition in which Providence may place her.

If the writer has been successful in maintaining the propositions with which he set out, there is nothing necessary to the successful organization of an export and import trade from the city of Norfolk except a cordial combination of all the interest concerned. It has been shown that a direct trade cannot be maintained by any one city within the trade area of the Chesapeake outlet. It has been shown that some point of concentration and distribution is indispensable. Will not, then, the cities of Virginia at least prefer the welfare of a sister to that of an alien? Will they not renounce all exactions and impediments upon commerce *in transitu*? and will not Norfolk contribute on her part free wharves and warehouses to the great Southern overland and ocean route between the producing interior and the markets of Europe?

ART. II.—IS THE SLAVE TRADE PIRACY?

THE CONSTITUTIONALITY OF THE ACT OF CONGRESS DECLARING THE SLAVE TRADE TO BE PIRACY.

PURELY legal questions, though usually interesting only to the lawyer, sometimes assume a political importance, which renders their discussion profitable and attractive to the general reader; and the interest which has been recently awakened on the subject of re-opening the African slave trade, has, doubtless, directed the attention of many Southern people to a consideration of the legal difficulties which stand in the way of its revival. By far the most important of these difficulties, is the Act of Congress which we now propose to discuss; for if that was removed, there is reason to believe that the slave trade would be re-opened even at the risk of a forfeiture of the vessel and cargo in the event of discovery. But while that act continues in force, there seems to be little hope of its revival; and the repeal of the act by Congress is generally regarded as an impossibility.

The question we are about to discuss will probably arise in the approaching trial of Captain Townsend, in the United States Circuit Court, and of the crew of the *Echo*; but it is very doubtful whether either of those cases will ever reach the

Supreme Court of the United States, where alone the question is to receive a final and authoritative adjudication.

The Act of Congress is based upon the power given by the Constitution, "to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;" and the question to be determined is, whether this provision authorized Congress to declare the slave trade to be piracy.

It is a matter of history, that when the Constitution was adopted, the slave trade was not considered illegal, and was not prohibited by any civilized nation. But long prior to that time the term *piracy* had the well-settled, definite, legal signification in which it is still understood. Kent says, "It is the same offence at sea with robbery on land; and all the writers on the law of nations, and on the maritime law of Europe, agree in this definition of piracy."* It is an offence against the law of nations, and the Supreme Court of the United States have decided,† that an act of Congress which simply referred to that code for its definition, was sufficiently certain, without giving the crime a precise definition in terms. Every nation has a right to pursue, capture, and punish pirates, and the vessels and other property taken from them are held to be lawful prizes. They can acquire no title to any property: vessels captured by them may be reclaimed by the true owner, wherever found.‡

After the slave trade was prohibited, and declared to be illegal, the courts of this country and of Great Britain were at first inclined to apply these principles to captured slave-trading vessels;§ but, in both countries, the doctrine has been repudiated, and it is now well-settled that the slave trade is not contrary to the law of nations, is not piracy, as settled by that code, and that British and American cruisers have no right to capture foreign vessels engaged in the slave trade, unless the right be given by treaty with the country to which the vessel belongs; but that with this, as with all other offences committed upon the high seas, except piracy and other offences against the law of nations, every nation must be left to the government and punishment of its own citizens.

The *Diana*,|| a Swedish vessel, was captured in 1810, on the coast of Africa, with a cargo of slaves; and in 1816, *Le Louis*,¶ a French vessel, on a slave-trading voyage, was also

* 1 Com., p. 183.

† *United States vs. Smith*, 5 Wheaton, 153.

‡ Kent, 183 and 184.

§ See the cases of the *Amidie*, 1 Acton's Rep., p. 240. The *Fortuna*, 1 Dodson's Adm. Rep., p. 81, and *Le Jeune Eugenie*, 2 Mason's Rep., p. 409.

|| 1 *Dodson's Adm. Rep.*, p. 81.

¶ 2 *Dodson's Adm. Rep.*, p. 210.

captured by a British cruiser. Both vessels were condemned as lawful prizes in the Vice-Admiralty court of Sierra Leone, but were restored to their owners on appeals to the High Court of Admiralty, on the ground that the English statutes making the slave trade illegal could not operate upon citizens of foreign countries. So, in 1818, Captain Willis, of the Royal Navy, captured a Spanish vessel loaded with slaves; and the Spanish owner brought an action of trespass against him in England for damages sustained by the detention of his vessel, and for the value of the slaves. He recovered a verdict of £3,000 for damages to his ship, &c., and £13,180 for the value of his slaves; and one of the ablest jurists that has ever honored the English bench, sustained the verdict.* Justice BEST said: "The declaration of the British Legislature, that the slave trade is contrary to justice and humanity, cannot affect the subjects of other countries, or prevent them from carrying on this trade out of the limits of the British dominions." "If a ship be acting contrary to the general law of nations, she is thereby subject to confiscation; but it is impossible to say that the slave trade is contrary to what may be called the common law of nations."

The Supreme Court of the United States have followed these decisions in the case of the *Antelope*.† A piratical privateer from one of the South American Republics, in 1819, proceeded to the coast of Africa, and there took from an American vessel twenty-five negroes, and also a large number of other negroes from several Spanish and Portuguese vessels. The negroes were all transferred to the *Antelope*, a captured Spanish slaver, and were subsequently recaptured from the privateer off the coast of Florida, by a United States revenue-cutter, and carried into Savannah. Upon these facts the Supreme Court held that the Spanish and Portuguese subjects, on proving their property, were entitled to a restitution of the slaves taken from them; but that those taken from the American should be turned over to the United States authorities, as the cargo of the *Echo* had been. Chief Justice MARSHALL said, that a "foreign vessel engaged in the African slave trade, captured on the high seas in time of peace, by an American cruiser, and brought in for adjudication, would be restored," and that the trade "was not piracy."

It will thus be seen, that not only *piracy* has a fixed and definite signification, but that no nation who may think proper to prohibit the slave trade, can set up a code of morals for

* *Madrayo vs. Willis*, 3 Barn. & Ald., p. 353 (5 English Common Law Rep., p. 208.)

† 10 Wheaton's Rep., 114.

the rest of the world on that subject, without violating the law of nations. Congress seems to have been aware of this difficulty, for the act declaring the slave trade to be piracy expressly made applicable only to citizens of the United States and persons on board of American vessels. This limitation would have been wholly unnecessary, if the crime of piracy, as understood long before, and at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, had included the slave trade; for if the slave-trader be a pirate, we have a right, and it is our duty, to capture and punish him, without reference to the country from which he or his vessel may have sailed.

If, then, the term "piracy," as used in the Constitution, did not include the slave trade, where does Congress obtain the power to punish American citizens as pirates for engaging in that trade? The Constitution must be construed in the sense in which it was understood when it was adopted; and no change of public opinion, on this or any other subject, can alter the proper legal construction of that instrument. This rule has been repeatedly recognized by the Supreme Court, and is emphatically announced in the celebrated *Dred Scott* case.

Chief Justice TANEY, in deciding the question whether negroes were citizens of the United States, says (p. 32): "None, we presume, supposes that any change in public opinion or feeling in relation to this unfortunate race, in the civilized nations of Europe or in this country, should induce the court to give to the words of the Constitution a more liberal construction in their favor than they were intended to bear when the instrument was framed and adopted. Such an argument would be altogether inadmissible in any tribunal called on to interpret it. If any of its provisions are deemed unjust, there is a mode prescribed in the instrument itself by which it may be amended; but while it remains unaltered, it must be construed now as it was understood at the time of its adoption. It is not only the same in words, but the same in meaning, and delegates the same powers to the government, and reserves and secures the same rights and privileges to the citizen; and as long as it continues to exist in its present form, it speaks not only with the same words, but with the same meaning and intent, with which it spoke when it came from the hands of its framers, and was voted on and adopted by the people of the United States. Any other rule of construction would abrogate the judicial power of this court, and make it the mere reflex of the popular opinion or passion of the day. This court was not created by the Constitution for such purposes. Higher and graver trusts have been confided in it, and it must not falter in the path of duty."

Indeed, this rule of construction seems too obvious to require either argument or authority, for without it, the rock of the Constitution itself is subverted, and we have in its stead the shifting sands of public opinion.

We have seen that the slave trade and piracy had no connection when the Constitution was adopted—the slave trade was a branch of legal and legitimate commerce; piracy was, as it is now, a crime, punished by all the world with the penalty of death; and so they had existed for ages before; for it is from the Romans that we derive many of the principles of law in regard to pirates, and it is well known that they, as well as the other ancient nations, even in the remotest antiquity, recognized and carried on a slave trade.

It is also perfectly clear that the framers of the Constitution did not use the term piracy with any reference to the slave trade. They withheld from Congress the power to prohibit the slave trade for twenty years. Can it be supposed for a moment that they understood that it was *piracy* which they were permitting and legalizing for twenty years? If so, our ancestors must have regarded themselves as a nation of robbers and freebooters.

If, then, the crime of piracy, in its ordinary and well-settled signification, and in the sense in which it was used in the Constitution, has no reference to the slave trade, where is the authority for Congress to punish a citizen of the United States as a pirate for engaging in the slave trade? The power "to define" as well as punish, can only be held to authorize Congress to specify what acts shall constitute piracy, just as the Constitution itself does, in regard to treason. It could never have been intended by the framers of the Constitution to authorize Congress to make that piracy which was not then, and had never before been, considered a crime, or in any way connected with piracy. If so, Congress is at once invested with despotic power. Why may it not declare it *piracy* to catch cod-fish on the coast of Newfoundland? or to carry cotton from Charleston to New-York? or to travel from New-York to Boston by Long Island Sound, or even from New-York to Brooklyn?

Such a construction of this section of the Constitution invests Congress with unlimited power over citizens of the United States upon the high seas, a power which this section itself, not to mention the special reservation in the tenth amendment to the Constitution, should lead us to believe, was not granted by that instrument. The power given is "to define and punish *piracies and felonies committed on the high seas*, and offences against the law of nations;" but to "define

and punish" *misdemeanors*, no power whatever is given. Criminal offences were then, as now, divided into two classes, felonies and misdemeanors, and the specification of a grant of power to "define and punish" one class, necessarily implies a want of power as to the other, or we must hold the term '*felonies*' to embrace criminal offences of all grades, a meaning never given to it in law or literature. There was a special mention of piracy, probably because that offence itself was not a felony at common law.

The exclusion of the power "to define and punish" misdemeanors, shows that the power given must be limited to the offences embraced in the classes enumerated. Could we have more conclusive evidence to show that this power did not extend to the African slave trade? If Congress has no power to punish citizens of the United States for misdemeanors committed on the high seas, *a fortiori*, it has no power to punish them *as pirates*, for acts which, when the Constitution was adopted, constituted no crime whatever.

What, then, it may be asked, was intended by the power 'to define?' No one at all familiar with criminal law, or its operation, will have any difficulty in answering the question. It means that Congress may specify what acts shall constitute the offence, but not to change its character or enlarge its limits. Such a power is absolutely necessary to every criminal jurisdiction, and is exercised in regard to every offence. For instance, there is no doubt that homicide, with malice aforethought, is murder; but it is a question of difficulty with both legislators and judges, to determine, in all cases, what acts amount to homicide with malice aforethought, and a power "to define" murder is exercised whenever that question is settled by any court or legislature.

But it would be absurd to say, that such a power authorized a definition of murder, which would change its character, or extend its meaning so as to include picking a pocket, or setting fire to a house, or an act which was not considered criminal when the power was given.

ART. III.—NATURAL EQUALITY OF MAN.

THE NATURAL EQUALITY OF MAN TREATED AS A QUESTION OF
PHILOSOPHY.

No. II.

In the September issue of the Review, we ventured upon certain speculations with respect to the origin of social principles.

The object of that article was to show that all truths of ethical science, under which head come the principles of social government, should have some general term of designation applied to them, that would enable us to distinguish them from natural philosophy or laws of nature. If you say that the permanent rights and wrongs of the social state—the truths that make up the science of social government—should be called or designated by the term *natural*, then there is no escape from the conclusion that those principles constitute a branch of natural philosophy, and should, along with chemistry, botany, ornithology, &c., &c., be included in every written treatise on natural science that pretends to be full and complete.

Now, what we want to teach is this, that there is a clear, broad, and momentous distinction between natural philosophy, and the rules or principles of conduct that should permanently govern men in the social relations of life, whether civil or religious.

What we understand by natural philosophy is this, viz. :—the rules, or principles, or laws, that regulate matter or material substances. Hence, wherever you can find substance subjected to a law, that law may be called natural, because all substances are mere reproductions.

In other words, nature only reforms or reproduces from antecedently existing *material* germs, and this *reproduction* is regulated by natural laws. Hence, no natural substance can, of its own motion, violate a law of nature.

But men, in the social state, *may* violate every principle of social ethics, if they see proper to do so—may obey or disobey them, as they prefer. Here we have a very marked distinction, then, between natural laws and the principles of social ethics.

Nature is regulated by certain fixed general laws, and hence every motion or operation of nature that conforms to those principles, may be called a natural right, or the right of nature.

But there are many instances in which natural objects do not conform to those general laws, and this non-conformity is always occasioned by peculiar circumstances—accidents they may be called—that have nothing to do with the will or volition of the natural objects, for they have none. These instances, called sometimes freaks of nature, are naturally wrong. Hence there may be action or motion in natural substances that may be naturally wrong, and yet *not wrong* either socially or morally, civilly or religiously.

Hence there is a wide distinction between a *social* right or wrong, and a *natural* right or wrong. It is this distinction that we wish to elaborate and unfold. We would not again intrude these speculations upon the attention of the readers of the Review, if it were not for the fact that in the article in the September issue of the Review, we are made to affirm what it was the whole purpose of the argument to deny.

We are made to say, at page 314, that “moral and social principles—the truths that regulate the intercourse of men in the various relations of life—the principles that should guide men when their opinions and interests conflict, are *natural in their origin*, or applicable in their operation to natural substances.”

The precise reverse of this is what we undertake to maintain.

The reader will please bear in mind the precise point in issue.

It is charged upon slaveholders that, in reducing Africans to involuntary bondage, they violate principles of natural right and natural justice.

And the persons who make this charge appeal to the Declaration of American Independence.

This celebrated state paper is predicated upon the supposition that social rights and wrongs are natural in their origin.

It is this philosophy that we wish to combat—the philosophy that assigns to *nature* the *origin* of social or ethical science.

We are willing to admit that there is such a science as sociology—comprising the principles of social life—comprising the rights and wrongs that constitute the science of government; but we are unwilling to admit that these principles are assigned by their author to regulate natural substances. Upon the contrary, they are designed to regulate thinking yet immaterial beings while in the social state. There is not a principle uttered by the Declaration, aside from the question of the *origin* of social rights and wrongs, that we wish to discuss or dispute. So far as the question we desire to dis-

ness is concerned, all men may be considered as equal and independent before the tribunal of social law. The social equality of man may or may not be considered as violated by the practices of Southern slaveholders. With this question we have now nothing to do.

We only desire to maintain, that if Southern slaveholders do violate some principles that go to compose the *science* of the *social state*, they do not thereby violate any principle of natural philosophy; for the reason, that the principles of natural philosophy apply exclusively to material substances—which social rules do not?

Will the reader please ask himself the question, why was it that that work of genius called the "Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation," was considered as of infidel tendency?

It was for no other reason in the world than that he predicated its teachings upon the precise principle now under scrutiny, viz. : that there was no distinction between God and nature, and that therefore all principles of action, whether relating to the voluntary power in man, or to the involuntary power in material substances, had a common origin, and *that* a natural one. Hence he espoused the natural development theory, or *law of causation* theory. He said expressly, as any reader may see who will consult the work, that in his view there was no distinction between God and the motive at work or operation in nature. Hence it followed that every operation, whether moral or mechanical, observed in the walks of nature, was in strict conformity with the pre-established harmony of the natural world, or harmony in the law of causation. The principle or groundwork of the philosophy of the "Vestiges of Creation" is the same in type and character with that portion of the Declaration, wherein the principles of social rule—the rights and wrongs of man socially considered—are declared to be of natural origin.

To say that any man is born *free*, and also born under the *control* of the principles of ethical science, is a contradiction in terms.

No man can be said to be free who is controlled in his acts and determinations.

If the rules that make the science of the social state *morally bind* men in perpetuity, then it is impossible for the mere act of the birth into or by nature to make him free, or absolve him from the fetters of his obligation, unless the act of birth abrogates the moral law, which it were a mere absurdity to hold.

It is important to understand the distinction between natural freedom and moral obligation. Nature makes me free to kill

a fellow-being, but morality restrains me. Now the whole beauty and excellence of any moral system are predicated upon man's *natural* freedom to disobey its requisitions.

This cannot be if nature has a *moral* code. That I have the freedom to kill a fellow-being is quite undeniable, and it is also quite undeniable that I have not the *moral* freedom to do it, because it is morally prohibited to me.

Now, whence comes my freedom to murder? Whence comes it when I am *morally* restrained—when I have not, therefore, the moral freedom to do it?

Do you say I have no freedom of any kind to murder? Can you say this with truth? That you cannot, we need only refer to the fact, that there is hardly any day in the whole year wherein men have not murdered each other. In order to answer this question, we have only to refer to the causes of natural death. This death is always and invariably effected by natural agencies—means supplied by nature. It requires no supernatural power to violate the rules of moral science.

Can nature be *consistent*, and furnish me with the means to murder—that is to say, make me free to murder—and then make it *contrary* to nature, or *unnatural* for me to use the freedom she imparts?

We can very well understand how the God of nature can naturally empower men to kill each other, to violate rules of social and moral government, and maintain the consistency of his character. But that can only be done upon the supposition that he is *directly*, and hence not naturally, the author of justice and moral rights and wrongs—the code of moral science.

Unless men were naturally empowered to violate principles of social government, it would be the merest absurdity to institute a code of laws restraining them from violating those principles which they were naturally unable to violate. If the Southern slaveholders were *naturally* unable to enslave Africans, then the only possible powers that they could use, in order to effect that result, would be supernatural ones—*i. e.*, preternatural endowments.

There are but two sorts of powers known to man, and they are the natural and the supernatural. The author of the "Vestiges of Creation" contends, that there are now no such powers in existence or operation as the preternatural. Hence, he denies the supernatural origin of the Christian Scriptures, and holds that the truths and principles therein taught are only true as they have archetypes in nature. Hence he *brings the Scripture to the test* of the truths of natural science. If the two differ, as they unquestionably do, then he prefers *the natural to the revealed*.

This, also, is the main doctrine of the "Constitution of Man," written by Dr. Combe.

If the fact be beyond question that I have the freedom to reduce an African to involuntary servitude, and you say that I have not this freedom from nature—that nature does not give me the power to do it—you are, then, reduced to the necessity of saying, that I do it by a supernatural power, coming directly from God for that express purpose, if there be known to men but the two sources of power to act, already designated.

If you say nature gives me the power, and then say that nature denies it—that is, prohibits it—you make nature inconsistent, and the source and origin of a contradiction.

Every man has an unshaken confidence in the stability and uniformity of the laws or operations of nature.

The very point in issue has been recently discussed by two of the most distinguished men of the present age; we allude to Sir William Hamilton and M. Victor Cousin.

Sir William Hamilton takes the ground that the Divine Being is not naturally comprehended. Victor Cousin takes the opposite side, and holds that nature contains the Deity—i. e., identifies him with the law of causation.

The question is involved in the point, whether the finite can comprehend the infinite.

Cousin, in his philosophical writings, otherwise so masterly and profound, takes the distinct ground, that nature contains the whole of the Divine Being; or, in other words, that the Divine Being is always and only *naturally* exhibited.

Hence, he contends with the American Declaration, that every principle or rule respecting the conduct or action of spirits or matter is a natural development; in other words, is never preternaturally entertained; that is to say, never entertained by the Supreme Being aside from nature.

In the phraseology of M. Cousin, to say that any principle was natural, was equivalent to saying that it was divine. And also, to say that any rule was preternatural, or non-natural, or that it existed aside from nature, was equivalent to superstition—the doctrine only of fanatics. There is a very great mistake, into which many Christian writers fall, when they speak of the *revelation* of principles of social conduct.

The distinction between the *revelation* of a rule of moral conduct, and the rule of conduct, whether revealed or not, deserves to be carefully taken.

The authority of a rule of social right, and its consequent wrong, is one thing, and is due to the wisdom and determination of the Infinite mind; and then, the revelation of this ex-

ting determination, or that existing wisdom, is quite a different thing.

For example, the rules of social life that are opposed to murder—that are opposed to theft—that are opposed to falsehood and duplicity—derive their authority, not from revelation, but from the Divine Being directly, and independently of its being supernaturally communicated to men.

Revelation only identifies—only declares, in a supernatural mode—only confirms the pre-existing and permanent determinations of the Divine will. There never has existed a moment, since the creation of man, when the ethical rules of social life were not the fixed and permanent determinations of the Divine mind; but there has existed a time when they were not revealed, or preternaturally identified, or communicated. Even at the present moment, there are doubtless some rules of social government existing in the determinations of the Divine mind, that are not revealed, but are left to the discovery of the finite intelligence of human beings. But as it is not our purpose to mix theological subjects with the question immediately on hand, we forbear to say anything further on this point.

The position that we wish to take on this very interesting subject, is, that all rules of social government—all principles of ethics—all moral science (whether revealed or not)—that are of *permanent existence*, exist in virtue of the determinations, or of the will, of the divine Being, and exist, aside from nature, and hence will continue to exist, after the wreck of nature and the crash of worlds shall be the history of the past.

To return again to the point in issue, we beg the reader to bear in mind that the opponents of the institution of domestic slavery allege, as an argument against it, that it is an invasion of the *natural rights* of man to social equality—that it is a self-evident truth that the act of the birth of nature establishes a social equality which it is naturally unjust and immoral to disregard. We hold, on the contrary, that Nature is a creation, and hence a *secondary effect*, and standing between its creator and the observation of men considered as immaterial beings; and that, therefore, not having anything to do with either the origination or application of moral science, no conduct effected by immaterial beings, which violates any rule of *right human conduct*, can be natural or unnatural, in any just ethical sense. If the conduct be either right or wrong, it must be because of its invasion of *some rule of right entertained by the Supreme Being*, and, therefore, permanently existing.

What is true of one slaveholder, is true of all. If, now, I,

as a slaveholder, invade the social rights of my slave, I must necessarily violate some rule which regulates the social intercourse of mankind generally, establishing the right, and, by necessary implication, prohibiting the wrong. Wrong, as applicable to men; is nothing but a violation of some rule of social ethics, permanently existing. If my slave, or any moralist for him, tells me that I have violated a principle of ethical philosophy—violated a rule of moral science—violated a right of social equality, I, at once, demand the proof of the *existence of the rule*. It will be no answer to my demand to say that *natural justice* prohibits it; for I hold that there is no such *natural law* as justice or honesty; in a word, that moral science is not naturally exhibited—not naturally developed.

Justice or honesty is manifestly not a law of nature. If you ransack nature throughout her entire domain, you will find nowhere the traces of the general or permanent existence of such a rule, but the contrary. Wrong and injustice, and oppression and cruelty, are much more frequently exhibited in the domain of nature, than are the principles of right conduct.

I know of no department of nature where the rule of justice has any application, or relevancy, or operation.

Certainly it does not prevail in chemistry, in ornithology, among the brutes, among the fishes, in water, in earth, in air, or in astronomy, &c., &c.

Justice and honesty pertain wholly to the enlightened *consciences* of *thinking* beings. Now, the whole question is, are the educated consciences of thinking beings a *natural* production? and are these products of nature generally or permanently regulated by a law of justice and honesty? In order to establish a natural law, or natural right, you have manifestly to point to some object that is natural, and then to show that this object is under the government of a law.

We never depart from this Baconian mode of observation in any one single instance—in any one of the many departments of nature—when we proceed to verify a law of nature.

We first notice some natural object, and then we notice its motion or action. If its motion or action is uniform and consistent, we then call that uniformity of action a law of nature.

Manifestly no object of nature moves or acts in uniform and consistent obedience of the law of justice.

If we were to call the *consciences* or even the *spirits* of men—the immaterial principle in them that thinks—*natural objects*, the *products of nature*—still, we could not say that justice, and honesty, and fair dealing, and humanity, in the social state, were natural laws, and their disobedience unnatural, or

contrary to nature, unless we could prove, as we are compelled to do in respect to all other natural products, that they uniformly and consistently obeyed those admirable regulations. Can we do this? Admitting men to be wholly natural objects, till, if we discovered them to be moved more by injustice and cruelty and wrong, in their general conduct, when left to their natural inclinations, than by right rules, we would, according to all fair or analogous reasoning, be constrained to all injustice and wrong the laws of nature. If any moralist tells me that I violate a law of justice—a rule of right pertaining to the social state—when I hold slaves to an involuntary bondage, if he be a fair-minded man, or disposed to pay any deference to fair reasoning, he will be compelled to furnish me, in support of his judgment, with the proof of the existence of some rule of social right having the Divine sanction that I have violated. If he make the Christian Scriptures the test in the debate, with respect to the existence of the rule supposed to be violated, I would at once tell him that I submitted cheerfully to the authority of the test; and that condemns me not. If he rather point to some supposed *natural* law, I tell him that the Christian Scriptures plainly inculcate the idea, that nature, in respect to rights and wrongs, is an unsafe and fallacious guide. The same mark of distinction that we suppose to exist between the existing principles of social government, and the rights or laws of nature, also prevails between natural philosophy, or the laws of nature, and the revelations of the Christian Scriptures.

There are very many of the truths that are contained in the Scriptures that are also observed in nature, and by the light of nature. But there are also many more with respect to which nature is wholly silent.

We know of no department of nature wherein the law is so closed that requires a gospel to be preached, or that requires prayer, fasting, or indeed any of the ceremonies of the Christian Church.

All of these laws are aside from nature, *i. e.*, are not the laws of nature, and, therefore, their observance is neither natural or unnatural in any intelligible sense.

They are directly divine, and therefore the existing independent determinations of the Infinite Wisdom.

If I therefore refuse to obey, or if I disobey designedly, any of the laws contained in the Scriptures, that are aside from nature, with which nature has nothing to do, you cannot correctly say that I violate any *natural law*, or that I act *naturally*, or contrary to nature. I only act contrary to the divine authority preternaturally entertained, that is, *entertained directly, or aside from nature.*

The great difficulty that most philosophers have to contend with when they are told that the principles of social science are not of natural origin, consists in their inability to perceive how such laws as honesty, justice, and the rights of the social state, can exist as laws, and yet be aside from, and independent of both nature and revelation.

It is this difficulty that disfigures the "Logic" of Mr. Stuart Mill. He says: "The conviction that phenomena have invariable laws, and follow with regularity certain antecedent phenomena, was only gradually acquired, and extended itself, as knowledge advanced from one order of phenomena to another, beginning with those whose laws were most accessible to observation. *This progress has not yet attained its ultimate point*; there being still one class of phenomena (*human volitions*), the *subjection of which to invariable laws* is not yet universally recognized, ... As, however, when the rules of correct induction had been conformed to, the result obtained never failed to be verified by all subsequent experience, every such inductive operation had the effect of extending the acknowledged dominion of general laws, and bringing an additional portion of the experience of mankind to strengthen the *evidence of the universality of the law of causation*, until now, at length, we are fully warranted in considering *that law, as applied to all phenomena within the range of human observation, to stand on an equal footing, in respect to evidence, with the axioms of Geometry itself.*"—*System of Logic*, ii., 216.

The reader will better perceive the full force of this extract by substituting, for the "law of causation," the *law of nature*, which, in the connection used, it properly means.

Mr. Stuart Mill says further: "I do not believe that there is now *one object or event* in all our experience of nature, within the bounds of the solar system at least, which has not been either ascertained by direct observation to follow laws of its own, or been proved to be exactly similar to objects and events which in more familiar manifestations, or on a limited scale, follow strict laws."—*Idem*.

Nothing would be easier than for us to show, that the assignment of the origin and application of rights and wrongs, in the science of social intercourse, to *nature*, and thus indirectly to the universal law of causation, rather than directly to the Author and Creator of nature, and thus aside from nature, is the very turning point between the logic of Infidelity and the rationality or possibility of a Revelation. But the discussion of this portion of our subject would carry us into the *domain of Theology*—and we forbear.

In conclusion, therefore, we say, that the rights of man are the legitimate offspring of a system of moral science, designed by its author to regulate the social state. These right principles may be obeyed or violated by individuals or by the civil authority, without thereby obeying or violating any law *of nature*, or any general law of causation operating *in nature*.

ART. IV.—EDUCATION OF SEAMEN AT THE SOUTH.

FLOATING SCHOOL SHIPS AND MARINE SCHOOLS.

KNOWING the interest which the Editor of De Bow's Review still feels, and has always evinced in his writings and references, in whatever concerns the welfare of his native city, I desire to bring to his notice, and that of his many readers, an educational enterprise recently set on foot in our commercial community. I allude to the establishment of a Floating School Ship and Marine School, in which the hardy sons of Old Ocean may be educated and trained, like other learners, for the responsible duties of their profession.

The advantages of such institutions are evident, at the first glance, and the importance of affording them at all of our large ports will be readily understood. The *modus operandi* of conducting and rendering them effectual and useful must be learned from the experience of other similar institutions. The means necessary for the inauguration of the scheme will doubtless be furnished by the intelligent and liberal-minded, provided this class of our commercial men will take the matter in hand with spirit and energy, and make it a matter of pride to Charleston, to have, and to maintain properly, an institution, which will reflect so much credit upon her. I am gratified to be able to say that the prospects with us, in all respects, are now more flattering than ever, and that there is good reason to believe that our people are ready for the undertaking. Its advantages have been frequently presented to them. The success of the experiment at Baltimore warrants reasonable expectations of a similar result here, and furnishes a basis upon which to organize and carry out the school. The last and most important requisition—available means for its support—will be forthcoming—and has already been contributed to some extent by our merchants and other friends of the enterprise.

A brief summary of the advantages of the Floating School Ship and Marine School may not be inappropriate here, as introductory to the further elucidation of this noble scheme.

And first, I would regard the early mental discipline which boys in such a school must receive, as a paramount and essential element in their preparation for the duties of maritime life. Sailors are looked upon as almost brutes, destitute of reasoning powers, and fit to be treated as creatures of sense and instinct only. Some degree of intellectual cultivation is necessary to restrain them as a race from sinking into this state of degeneracy, to which their own inclination, as well as public sentiment, predisposes them, while exposed, as they now are, to the degrading associations of the sailor-boarding-house and the fore-castle.

Again, a certain amount of moral and religious training, founded on general Christian principles, without sectarianism, is indispensable to any improvement in the character and condition of seamen. At many of our ports we have now regularly-appointed chaplains, and commodious Bethels, at which such instruction is given; and day-schools in these places will have all the benefit and co-operation of religious influences.

With such a system of preparation for the duties of their calling, we may look for some improvement in the condition of the sailor. Our coasting vessels would soon be manned by pupils from these schools, and the education they will have received, being not only such as will qualify them to rise rapidly in grade, but, being based on high moral and Christian principles, must materially elevate their character and habits as a class. Parents are now necessarily deterred from sending their sons to sea, in consequence of the debasing associations they must inevitably contract, our seamen being often gathered from the very offscourings of creation, from the foulest sinks of corruption, and by the use of means revolting to a civilized community. Here they will be drawn into better associations by their own consent, and placed under wholesome restraints. Their religious instruction will be made a matter of paramount solicitude, and after having passed through the ordeal of preparation for the duties of life, and shielded from its temptations, until the character has been formed, they will then be taken by the hand by our most respectable merchants and ship-captains, and raised to positions of responsibility and profit. The united influences of the Church, the School, the Temperance Society, Chamber of Commerce, Port Society, and the mercantile community generally, will thus be brought to bear upon the interests of the school, out of which may arise, in a few years, a new generation of seamen, *thoroughly instructed in their duties, to their employers, to society, and to their God, and whose after-career can be point-*

to as illustrations of the wisdom of this expedient and humane enterprise.

There is ample material here for a school of this character. We have in our city probably more than a hundred boys going large about the streets, a large number of whom seldom or never go to school, and the rest growing up vagabonds, and in fair way to become thieves and murderers. Many of these boys may yet be saved to their parents and to the State, and the expense of educating them for a sea-faring life might be more than counterbalanced by the annual saving in the cost of keeping them in jail, prosecutions, &c. This consideration strongly vindicates the propriety of the application which has been made by our citizens for State Legislative aid, showing that, as a measure of economy alone, the proposed scheme is worthy of an earnest and prompt support from that source.

I come now to the practical part, the actual expense of conducting the Marine School, and the probability of the institution ultimately becoming to a sufficient extent self-supporting, to justify the outlay which may be required.

In my inquiries on this subject, I have been indebted to the co-operation of my esteemed friend, Rev. W. B. Yates, seaman's chaplain at this port, who has the honor of having, with a few energetic colleagues, first called attention to the subject of Marine Schools in this country. His untiring devotion to the cause of the sailor is too well known here and throughout the country generally, to require any special mention of his connection with any movement that has ever been made for the improvement of the condition of this unfortunate class of beings. The success of this project will be to him the crowning glory of an eventful and useful life, dedicated to the great work of doing good to suffering humanity.

I am also indebted for the information concerning the Baltimore School, embodied in the extracts which follow, to the researches of Richard Yeadon, Esq., the zealous and liberal-hearted president of the Charleston Port Society, who has taken this matter in hand with characteristic energy, and will, by its successful accomplishment, ere long, confer honor on his administration, and be instrumental in raising an enduring monument, in this school, to the liberality and public spirit of our City and State.

In one of his interesting chapters of Editorial Correspondence with the Courier, during the last summer, Mr. Yeadon gives the following full and comprehensive sketch of the Baltimore Floating School :—

'The Baltimore Floating School was organized on the 14th September, 1857, and commenced with the small number of eight pupils, but the

number has already increased to sixty, from twelve years of age and upward. It is kept on board of what was formerly the United States sloop-of-war *Ontario*, of 700 tons burthen, the hull of which, with three masts and a bowsprit, was purchased from the United States Government, for the sum of \$3,000, the Board of Trade contributing \$1,000, merchants and liberal citizens the residue. The plans and specifications, together with the building and building materials, cost \$2,001 34, and the furniture and furnaces, \$500; books and stationery, \$403 80, and the amount charged for insurance is \$19, and for fuel about \$100, all paid by the city authorities. The officers and instructors are Mr. Robert Kerr, principal, with a salary of \$900; Wm. Wardenburg, assistant, \$400; Capt. Philip S. Marshall, nautical instructor, \$660; and George W. Smithson, a seaman, janitor, \$350, who lives on board, and is found in lights and fuel. Repairs and additional books constitute other items of expense. The Board of Public School Commissioners 'provide all the educational pre-requisites, to which their department extends.' 'Nothing which could in any way assist in rendering the school effective, has been withheld [by them], and to this fact may be ascribed, in a great measure, the present excellency which it now enjoys.' It is furnished with a good nautical and educational library, and Lieut. Maury, of the United States Navy, has rendered it great service by presenting his valuable charts and diagrams, which have especial reference to its studies and exercises. The pupils are only day scholars, not living aboard, and finding themselves. They are instructed in reading, writing, grammar, geography, algebra, geometry, navigation and the practical duties of the seaman. The vessel is handsomely and commodiously equipped, with sails, rigging and otherwise, for both the common and the nautical school; and she is moored with ropes, free of expense, at the city wharf. The daily school session commences at 9 A. M., and continues not exceeding six hours, with a recess of an hour.

"The school is under the direction of the Commissioners of Public Schools, through a joint committee of five members of the School Board, and two members of the Board of Trade. The principal and assistants and the janitor are supplied or appointed by the School Board, and the nautical instructor by the Board of Trade, and he is subordinate to the principal in all matters, not purely nautical, and regulates transits to and from the ship. Nautical instruction is given in classes, in rotation from common school divisions, and the pupils are exercised in handling the ropes, sails, &c., in other than the common school hours, when activity and noise may be allowed. Pupils may be selected to act as 'officers of the day' for certain periods, to assist the teachers, act as monitors, &c., and be recognized by the other boys, as so far in command for the time. The principal keeps a record of the pupils, and of their merits. This record is minutely complete as to age, parentage, residence, personal description, and attainment, and indeed amounts to a condensed biography of each scholar. The nautical instructor keeps a log-book, always open for inspection, in which are duly noted the state of the wind, weather, temperature, &c., and the general transactions and occurrences of the day.

"At present there is no school uniform, but it is intended to adopt one, when practicable, 'of blue cap, roundabout and trowsers for winter, and white trowsers in summer.'

"The able and worthy principal and his assistant, the skillful nautical instructor and the janitor, all received and treated me with great civility and courtesy, and gave me every facility to post myself in all matters connected with the School Ship and its practical working. For my especial *accommodation and benefit they called off the embryo sailors, from educational duty proper, to the theory and practice of seamanship, and they, with great alacrity and facility, bent the sails, ascended to the mast-head,*

and went through a variety of nautical operations very much to my gratification. When drawn off from study to nautical exercises they manifested evident delight, and the principal remarked that he only wished they had ke appetite for the graver and more intellectual employment. At the loss of the display of young seamanship, I expressed to the boys my high ratification with their performances, and told them it augured well of them as future defenders of 'free trade and sailors' rights,' and as gallant pholders of the glorious banner of stars and stripes on the ocean wave.

"The worthy officers regretted that their ship was a fixture, and advised me to purchase, for Charleston, a condemned merchant-vessel of some 500 tons, that could float in our harbor, and literally serve the purpose of a *floating* as well as a nautical school. I bade them adieu, with many warm thanks for their kindness and courtesy. Capt. Robert Leslie, a venerable sea-captain, is entitled to the credit of founding or suggesting the Baltimore School Ship, and Mr. E. S. Courtney, a Baltimore merchant, has lent it efficient aid and encouragement. To the latter, who had kindly opened a correspondence with me, on the subject of the Charleston School ship, I had the pleasure of paying my respects.

"The Baltimore School Ship is a decided success, a noble achievement of mercantile and enlightened public spirit, and a blessed work of philanthropy; and I trust that Charleston, which, through her seaman's chaplain, first suggested the project in America, will not be laggard in giving it a local habitation' in her own beautiful and capacious harbor."

The Baltimore plan, as will be perceived from Mr. Yeadon's letter, provides only for day scholars, "the pupils not living aboard, and finding themselves." There is one peculiar feature in the school contemplated in Charleston which commends itself to our earnest approval. Instead of allowing the pupils simply to go on board the vessel for the purpose of receiving instruction, the plan of ours provides that *they shall reside and be accommodated on board*, where they will be sheltered from the temptations to which sailors are exposed on shore. This is an important provision, and absolutely essential to the maintenance of good order and discipline.

The Baltimore American says of the School in that city :

"We doubt much whether any institution ever started in this city has achieved more good, during the short time in which it has been in operation, or given such promise of beneficial results for the future, as the Floating School Ship. It reaches a class of persons whose training, morally and mentally, has hitherto been much neglected, and we have no doubt it will, in time, be the means of improving the condition of seamen of our port, and elevate the maritime profession far above what it is at present. It may be well to state that, in this school, boys are so thoroughly initiated into the practical duties of the sailor that they become tolerably efficient seamen as soon as they go to sea, and at the same time such instruction in the necessary branches of education is afforded them that their intelligence makes them exceedingly valuable on board of merchantmen, both on account of their freedom from vicious habits and the reliability which can be placed in them by the captain and his officers. In proof of this, we can only state that boys trained in this school find ready employment, and indeed so great is the demand for them, that few, if any, are permitted to remain in the school as long as it is deemed necessary to initiate them into all the duties of *their intended profession*. We are led to these remarks from having

been shown letters from two boys to the gentlemen who have charge of the school ship, who are now on their first voyage. These letters indicate a degree of intelligence far superior to that of boys generally who choose the sea as their profession, and give promise that their education, specially adapted to the business of their choice, will soon fit them for promotion. We are glad to find that much interest continues to be taken in this subject by the Public School Commissioners and by the members of the Board of Trade, and as our city has taken the lead in establishing the institution, we trust she will be the first to reap its advantages. It is admitted that Baltimore ship-captains have a deservedly high repute in other parts of the Union, and this reputation will not be lessened when it is known that they have been fitted for their duties by early education. It certainly will not be detrimental to them if it is found that they add skill, energy, and experience, to a well-cultivated intellect."

The success of this project of our Baltimore friends is an earnest of what may be expected in other Southern ports, where the matter is taken hold of with equal spirit and determination. I hope to be able to bring this subject again to the notice of your readers, at a future period, and to announce the final consummation of an undertaking which will redound so much to the honor and the interest of our cherished city.

EDWIN HERIOT.

Charleston, Dec. 1, 1858.

ART. V.—SLAVERY—THE BIBLE AND THE "THREE THOUSAND PARSONS."

HOW THE CHRISTIAN MINISTRY STAND RELATED TO THE SUBJECT OF SLAVERY, AND HOW THEIR DUTIES ARE NEGLECTED OR PERVERTED.

THE subject of slavery has attracted much more attention of late years, in both Europe and America, than formerly, owing to the greater interest mankind take relative to its existence, extension, and duration. Whether right or wrong, politic or impolitic, it is an institution guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States to every State in the Union, so long as any one of them may choose to establish or retain it; therefore, the only lawful remedy, if it is viewed as a moral evil, is moral suasion and argument: or, if considered inexpedient and impolitic, by change of the constitution, or by leaving those who wish to retain it to become their own guarantors, and security for this and every other right and interest, by a separate exercise of national power.

The great mass of the people of the United States are Protestant and Republican, in their theory of Religion and Government, and it is the duty of all to understand the principles upon which their religious and political faith and practice are

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ed, with a view to a rightful, consistent, and uniform discharge of duty.

Every American citizen should look to the law of God for moral and religious direction ; subject, however, to the limitation and modification which the constitution and laws of his country impose—for this is the “ higher law ” to real Christians, that they “ obey the powers that be ; ” and they are no more responsible for the immoralities they conceive themselves thus strained to perform, than a sheriff or other officer of the law who executed a fellow-being he thinks innocent of crime. Though we thus contend for the right of rulers, and insist on the correlative duties of citizens, yet while the latter, in good faith, and fear of God, are bound to obey the mandates of lawful authority, it is not only their *right*, but also duty, to construe, protest against, and discuss the justice and policy of such laws as they disapprove, until rulers and ruled accord judgment, or the former, by continued oppression, forfeit claim to obedience from the latter. The circumstances surrounding each particular person and community can alone indicate when it is necessary to jeopard life, in an attempt to secure what makes life desirable.

In the discussion of any subject, it is necessary the terms used should be clearly defined, to make ourselves understood ; when an action, institution, law, or relation, is the subject of examination with a view to determine its morality, it is better to examine into the nature of the subject, and predicate, so far as we correctly apprehend them, will we be able to determine the right or wrong of either.

By common consent, man is constituted with those classes of powers or propensities known as intellectual, moral, and sensual, though we cannot perceive why the name *moral* should attach to one more than another, as an ungoverned benevolence leads to injustice, and a lawless veneration to superstition, as much at war with individual and associate happiness, as an abuse of what are *called* the lower propensities ; more so, for by universal consent they are charitably considered as the disinterested overflowings of kindness to God and man, whereas, when analyzed, they will be found to be that instantaneous gratification of self which marks the abuse of any sensibility, without looking more to the real lasting good of another, than we do to ourselves when we unduly gratify animal desires. The only just and true benevolence and veneration consist in limiting them to such exercise as some directs.

If the foregoing be correct, then some limitation and direction of our *propensities* and *sentiments* are necessary to the improvement and perfection of man's mixed constitution ; for if they

are left to blind, unaided impulse, to purvey for the wants of his triple nature, he could never accomplish any end worth the having, as it would be at the expense of the rights or enjoyments of others, which his own constitution in part forbids.

This *limitation* and *direction* are what we understand by the *moral law*, and it must be taught and impressed by the reason and understanding of man, or by a Supreme Being.

We know of no other process by which human reason can discern the nature of things and persons anterior to (or without) positive precept, but by experience and observation, and reflection thereon, which is all that reason employs in classifying or generalizing the phenomena of any subject to which it directs the attention of the perceptive powers.

Whether reason, by the exercise of other human powers, has discovered the rules of moral rectitude or not, the larger portion of those who profess to be governed by its dictates alone concur with the majority in all Christian communities, that the New Testament contains and teaches what is reasonable and right, in all the various relations of life. Therefore, when we inquire into the morality of an action or relation, or the rights and duties resulting therefrom, it is the sole standard to which we should appeal.

That slavery was an institution of the Old Testament, and recognized by the New, must be admitted by all, and therefore cannot be said to be immoral in itself, more than any other relation or association of individuals where one *will* gives law to the rest; and every relation, involving such inequality, is rendered necessary by nature or circumstances, to continue and improve the race.

The domestic relations are necessary to the suppression of vice, and the development of the moral, intellectual, and physical powers of offspring; and parents are under moral obligations to use the best means in their power to accomplish this end, whether this relation be the result of lawful or unlawful intercourse.

Civil government has been found necessary in all times and countries; and though such governments have generally been established by violence and force, yet the relations thus constituted have not been judged immoral; for though the motives which have induced most military and political leaders to establish civil governments may have been unjust, yet it would have been none the less necessary had better men been the instruments; as a settled government, however imperfect, is better than the anarchy resulting from an independent plurality of wills, of equal authority within the same jurisdiction.

The institution of civil government being lawful because necessary, it does not follow, that all its exercise of power is lawful, for none can be so considered, but such as conduces to the well-being and improvement of the governed.

Perhaps a more concentrated and extended despotism never existed on earth, than that exercised by the earlier Roman Emperors; yet even that form of civil government was not demanded by Christ or his Apostles; on the contrary, their command was to render obedience to all authority, whether just or unjust; and we readily apprehend the reason and necessity of such unlimited power, to secure that peace and order, without which, their commission to go into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature, could not have been fulfilled; nor suppress internal war and rapine, which would have been the effect of the almost universal ignorance and vice then existing; from which we infer, that human government must exist, of sufficient force to suppress the vicious actions and enlighten the subjects or citizens sufficiently to secure their performance of social duty. But as civil government is controlled by men of like passions with those they govern, we discern in many of them, even in the most mild and liberal governments, a disposition to thwart the ultimate ends of government, by the bad example and exactions of vicious rulers; the only remedy for which we know anything about (however imperfectly as yet applied), is the moral government of God, as exercised by his church, whether organized on the succession of faith or the succession of the Apostles of Christ.

If Christ and his Apostles recognized the Roman government at the time indicated (wherein the most perfect mastery and slavery existed) as lawful, then the minor relations of master and slave, involving a less disparity of power, must have been approved, as is further indicated by prescribing its relative duties. Whether this relation originated in force or fraud, necessary self-defence, or for their instruction in Christianity, they alone have to answer to God for the rectitude of their intentions who introduced it; but after it is introduced into civil society, the government is the responsible judge of what authority shall be granted to (or withheld from) the master, and how much duty and service be required from the slave; for as governors are responsible to God for the improvement of the governed in knowledge and virtue, as the chief end of legitimate government, they must have the means to effect it. When, therefore, some lawgivers deny the means of knowledge, which is said to be the handmaid of *virtue and religion*, they war against both the divine law and the avowed object of just government among men.

Though the slave relation be lawful and proper in itself, the government that denies to any class of its population the elements of learning, as a means of knowledge, runs counter to the gospel precept that enjoins on all men the duty of searching the Scriptures for themselves. If such a law is approved in a Republican and Protestant community, it involves the absurd contradiction of professing a religious and political faith they will not practise, thus giving practical evidence of the truth and necessity of the Roman Catholic doctrine of absolute government in Church and State, that ignorance is the mother of devotion.

The marriage relation, that primary school of the moral sentiments, has been sanctioned by the reason and experience of all civilized people, as the proper and fruitful source whence proceed the rivulets of love, which constitute the stream of benevolence that waters and makes fruitful every land.

This institution established by God, as its amalgam, love, verifies, as well as his written word, cannot be sundered by any government, for slight and trivial causes, without exciting the just indignation of all men; as wantoning with the most hallowed emotions of the soul, invading a natural and unalienable right to connubial sympathy, which no people ever did or can surrender, to secure any or all the rest; and any government that permits it will be viewed, by those who are not participants in it, as neglecting the foundation on which individual and social happiness is based; and if it is broken by laws of inheritance or other, to subserve the interest or convenience of another fellow-being, will be deemed wanting in due respect for the opinions of mankind and of reverence to God.

The relation of parent and child, the usual result of husband and wife, which nature and necessity conspire to, secures individual and associate happiness; for how else could progressive improvement in intellectual and moral power be secured, unless the instinct of parental affection be superinduced on a sense of moral obligation, which is admitted by all as demanding of the strong and intelligent, that they should impart to those more destitute the means of improvement? Hence we find that parental affection has been given, to stimulate to moral duty, thus ministering to the universal good of man; for experience and observation teach that the majority of even vicious men use the power and affection thus given them, for the intellectual and moral improvement of offspring. And many succeed better in imparting it, *than others who are greatly their superiors in mind and heart.* We therefore conclude, that it is a means of human

improvement instituted by God to accomplish this end, and is another inalienable right of our common nature, which the parent cannot surrender, and neither individual nor associate human power can of right destroy.

Governments permitting or commanding its destruction will, by all the disinterested portion of mankind, be viewed as the enemies of human improvement, and would jeopard every right to gratify their selfish propensities, and only lack the power to make the evil universal.

Man is endowed with powers and capacities to seek and enjoy such things as his intellectual, moral, and animal nature demands, as necessary and proper to their healthy action, development, and enjoyment—the admitted end of his creation. Though *action* is necessary to the improvement and enjoyment of his capacities, yet over or undue action tends to weaken or destroy such capacity; therefore, the point of healthy and proper action must be discovered and acted on, to secure the largest lawful gratification. Action, in general, is the result of the moral sentiments and physical propensities seeking their gratification in the objects suited to gratify them, found in the world of matter and of mind, existing without them, and which all alike pursue under the impelling influence of blind instinct. This produces a constant action and reaction, so violent, as almost uniformly to pass beyond or fall short of that medium which indicates a healthy and proper action, and which we would call the moral law of our powers, positive and negative, personal and relative.

The history of mankind, thus far, proves the incompetency of unaided human reason to discover the right and proper boundary of human action, in all its relations; yet if the power to do so be admitted, so much time would be required in the improvement and use of their faculties to make the discovery, that the mass of mankind, owing to their great ignorance, arising from circumstances necessarily surrounding them, would be incapacitated to effect it individually, such as childhood, youth, and the necessity of continued labor to support their bodily wants.

If each for himself would not do so, then a large majority would have to receive it by faith in the teaching of others; and the few who profess to find it for themselves, receive it by faith in the rectitude of their powers of perception, attention, reflection, reason, and judgment.

So we are driven to receive it by faith in our own powers, in that of others, or in the Maker of all. We cannot believe that an intelligent and good Being would construct a complex machine to perform certain duties within a given time, with-

out affording it power within itself to work out the end desired, or furnishing it with external means to effect it; and as man, by the use of all his powers, has been found incompetent to regulate himself, so as to accomplish the proper action and improvement of all his powers, we infer that God his Maker has (out of himself) afforded means or power to do so. Otherwise we would have to conclude that a good and intelligent Being had created another being for usefulness and happiness, and not afforded the means to secure them, either directly or indirectly, which would be absurd.

To avoid the absurdity of this conclusion, we infer, that proper means to secure the ends contemplated have been devised, and are to be found in the rules of action prescribed in "the Book" purporting to come from God, known as the Bible; for if we have proved the moral necessity of a rule from our Maker, then are we to receive that as such which comes to our reason and faith with the high marks of authority and usefulness which that Book possesses. As no one denies that the experience, observation, and reason of man, approve its teachings, therefore it is received by the most enlightened individuals and nations of mankind as the law of God.

All who receive the New Testament as the rule of faith and practice, must take it with its concomitants, a church, its ordinances, and a ministry, or officers to teach, proclaim, and enforce its requisitions, for these are included in the revelation. And to do this aright, they must speak and act in the name of the Lawgiver—represent his will, vindicate his honor, and not pander to the imperfect nature of those they are called to reprove, instruct, and direct. Hence, they must possess a higher spirituality than others, that they may effectually persuade men to the *performance* of duty; and a higher intelligence, from study and application, to teach men that their interest and duty are identical.

If, as we believe, such an order of men is necessary to accomplish the end designed, and they seem to have been considered indispensable by all orders of religionists in all time, then are they bound to *raise* the standard of moral excellence to the highest point of elevation their religion teaches. Does not the Master's service require it of those to whom he has specially confided the power to illustrate it among men? Should they not exhibit a greater devotedness to duty, a higher exercise of moral courage, a martyr-like determination to enforce on the consciences of men *all* that is *required* or forbidden?

They have assumed all these responsibilities, and if they do not discharge them, ought they not to be despised by all men?

as those who ask pay for imperfect work, dishonoring God by teaching a mutilated morality and religion, and leaving in darkness those they were sent to illuminate, and by such neglect risking the ruin of all.

The remarkable fact is presented to us, of a very numerous and intelligent body of men in the United States, thus professing to be called to expound the Word of God, who teach, on the one hand, things which the Book is silent about, and, on the other hand, leave untaught the positive commands of God. The law of Christ does not condemn the slave relation; yet there are those who denounce it as sin, forgetting that sin is defined in Scripture to be the transgression of law, also that those are righteous overmuch who teach that which is not written; and, on the other hand, there is a class who know that the book of nature and God condemn the violation and abuse of the domestic relations; and yet many of those who have undertaken to purify the moral atmosphere where they labor, are almost silent, though they witness these glaring abuses daily. How can these things be accounted for? These different classes of teachers must be rather the representatives of the popular opinion of those with whom they associate, and from whom they receive a little worldly consideration, upon condition that they will legislate for Christ, where his law is defective, and nullify such as they think contrary to their worldly interest. Has the Pope, in the darkest ages of the church, ever gone farther in principle toward assuming the prerogative of God? When Luther protested against the abuses of the Papacy, we find, among other things that excited his holy indignation, was the worship of the Virgin, if not of images, and dispensing with the performance of any and every duty enjoined in God's Word, upon the payment of such sums of money as the holy appraisers fixed as the value of each sensual gratification indulged in contrary to law.

So we think that, even now, all abuses have grown out of the right assumed of adding to and taking from the requisitions of the Book.

It is charged to national church establishments, that their ministry, being paid by the state, become remiss in duty, and yield to worldly influences so as to lower the standard of morality and religion. If it be so, we would like to know what excuse there is for a voluntary Protestant ministry, which teaches that to be sin in one latitude which Christ has not prohibited, and, by culpable neglect or time-serving, sanction in another that which he has condemned.

St. Paul, Luther, Calvin, Knox, and Wesley, have their ardent admirers, almost to idolatry. Why do they not show their

devotion and rightful succession to them in God's ministry, by emulating their fearless, energetic pronulgation of all truth and nothing but the truth, and their contempt for and indifference to the honors and emoluments that come from man?

To accomplish the end designed by their commission, they should feel that they are clothed with authority from on high, not only to teach and enforce duty on inferiors, but even rulers—that while, by the force of their arguments and denunciations, they make an Agrippa believe and a Felix tremble, they still require obedience to all in authority, as well-pleasing to God.

We have little hope for that progressive improvement which will permanently advantage mankind, while the ministry of the Word, though teaching obedience to the powers that be, fail to make lawmakers and all in authority feel the accumulated responsibility of their position, and until they fearlessly urge lawgivers to make such as nature and Christ demand, with a view to the happiness of all mankind.

ART. VI.—FURTHER VIEWS OF THE ADVOCATES OF THE SLAVE TRADE.

Our pages, for the past year or two, have been largely occupied with the arguments advanced *pro* and *con* upon the subject of the slave trade, and perceiving the large and growing interest which it was attracting throughout the Southern States, we have not felt at liberty to restrict the discussion.

Certainly no cause has ever grown with greater rapidity than has that of the advocates of the slave trade, if we may judge from the attitude it is assuming in most of our Southern Legislatures: and whatever may be the final result, the investigations and arguments which have been stimulated, have tended greatly to elucidate our federal relations, and shed new and important light upon the institutions of the South. Almost the earliest paper published upon the subject, was prepared for our REVIEW by Mr. Lide, of Columbia, S. C.

The author of the following argument expresses some views in which we do not concur. This must often be the case with contributions published by us, since it is but fair to allow a full discussion of all topics important to the South. In a private letter, the author remarks:

"It is marvellous to observe how singularly erroneous are the views so frequently expressed on this subject; yet, these views are of controlling influence. I would like particularly to array the science of true political economy against some of these vague hallucinations. I think, however, that, with very little inquiry and discussion, every clear head in the country will be forced to acknowledge that political economy does not afford the shadow of a sound objection to the slave trade. It will be easy to drive them to the position that their old moral prejudices against it is the only thing against it after all—and that position is perfectly untenable."—[EDITOR.]

THERE is one subject, indeed, that has particularly occupied my own thoughts for some time past, and I confess, that it really gives me pleasure, to have this opportunity of submitting a few reflections on this subject to the public scrutiny.

I allude to the African slave trade.

This trade it was proposed to open last winter in the Legislature of Louisiana. The proposition was, to let negroes be imported, to be held as hirelings. The report of the committee in favor of the bill merely observed that the laws of Congress prohibiting the slave-trade did not apply to any such case as that contemplated by the bill. The report did not quote the federal law on this subject; it made only the one remark that I have repeated, and then went on to discuss the expediency of the project. There was no show of argument to prove, that this project was not in conflict with the federal law; and it seemed natural to suppose, therefore, that any one reading the two measures, the federal statute and the bill in the Legislature of Louisiana, would have no difficulty in perceiving their harmony. On the contrary, however; on referring to the statutes of the United States, their direct conflict with the Louisiana bill is manifest beyond all question. If, therefore, the law of Congress is a binding law, that proposed in our neighboring State must yield. The statute of the United States, without a doubt, covers every possible scheme that could be devised for bringing negroes to this country to hold them to any sort of service, long or short.

In other quarters, the prospect of re-opening the slave trade has been made an argument for the dissolution of the Union, and the establishment of a Southern Confederacy, composed of the present slaveholding States. But is it likely that such a confederacy would grant the slaveholding States that boon? The course of things in the late Southern Commercial Convention would go to show, that we could never hope for the re-opening of the slave trade by a Southern Confederacy. The strongest part of that confederacy would be interested in protecting the slave-sellers here at home against competition with the slave-sellers of Africa. Virginia and Kentucky and Missouri, together with such other States as now derive large profits from raising negroes that are sold to Mississippi and the other slave-buying States, would, in a Southern Confederacy, see, as they do now see, a sinfulness in the revival of the slave trade with Africa, that would effectually prevent them from soiling their Christian hands in any such bloody business. And these communities that would resist the slave trade would control the Southern Confederacy. They would outnumber their victims, and force them to content themselves with the home market and take their negroes at home prices. The Northern States of our Southern Confederacy would seize a monopoly of our Southern demand for more negroes. I say these things were made manifest in the late convention in Montgomery—for just such a disposition operated upon the representatives of those slave-selling States in that convention, and prevented the passage of resolutions in favor of reviving the slave trade.

It would not be long, too, after the establishment of a Southern Confederacy, before its Northern members would begin to declare that a country exporting as much cotton as our Southern Union would export, could never be safe without a commercial and naval *marino*, and the consequences of that out-cry would be, that they *would* it having the power in their hands, would immediately in-

stitute such a system of legislation as would build up a national marine, naval and commercial, at the expense of Southern exports. So, our cotton interests in a Southern Confederacy would soon be called on to pay most roundly for protection to merchants and seamen in Maryland, Virginia, or some of those more thickly peopled States. The establishment of such a system of protection for seamen, it is easy to see, would only pave the way for a like protection for manufactures in our confederacy of Southern slaveholding States. The burden of the protection would fall on the exporting States, and the advantages of it would be distributed among the denser population of our more Northern States, for it would be those States that would naturally turn to commerce and manufactures, rather than our cotton-growing community.

So it would appear that any project that contemplates the existence of a Southern Confederacy as favorable to Mississippi, and likely to secure the slave trade for her people, is founded in double error. So far from doing what it proposes, we would not only fail to realize our dearest object of procuring negroes at cheap rates, but we would become again the prey of a section disposed, as its late action against the free trade in negroes evinces, to use its power for building up its own interests, regardless of the rights of other sections. Mississippi would find that this controlling portion of a Southern Confederacy would turn out to be another New-England, living on the fat of our lands. To dissolve this Union and erect a Southern Confederacy, would be, so far as we are concerned, like setting fire to the ships and factories of New-England, only to rebuild them in Virginia, and that, too, after it has been at our cost that they were first built in New-England. We had better, then, hold on to the possessions we have already, and not throw them away for a delusive hope that we can get a slave trade with Africa by going into a Southern government, when, instead of realizing that hope, we can only make sure of being precipitated into the most impoverishing of protective tariffs under such a Southern government.

Besides, however, the clumsy attempt in Louisiana to evade the law of the General Government and introduce negroes from Africa, and the project of a slave trade through the help of a Southern Confederacy, another mode has been hinted at as not unlikely to secure that blessing. Mr. Spratt, in a most able report to the convention at Montgomery, seems to imply that the Northern mind could be brought to co-operate with the South, and change the legislation of the Federal Government on this point, so as to re-establish the slave trade. He says that money arguments govern the North, and it could be shown that the African slave trade would be decidedly to the pecuniary advantage of the North. It is enough to say that, if this were true, it would still take years for the requisite change in the fanatical mind of the Northern people to be brought about; but we want the slave trade at once, and although we cannot evade the law of Congress on that subject by pretending that it does not apply to Africans bound to service for a term of years only, although we

would affect a complete and exclusive establishment of a Southern Confederacy, a union it is disapproved in our views of restoring the Union, and although the change in the Southern mind and the national sentiment of the entire State in Congress is a thing that we are not prepared to overlook, as I think we may if we do, more to come into it, and that there is no virtual the most important in the future of our government.

My opinion is that the more prohibiting the trade in slaves between these States and others are unconstitutional and ought to be abolished. They are unconstitutional because they violate the general operation of the Constitution, and the exercise of all the States should be taken by equality and that the operation of Congress must be a general and equal, and not a violation of the general operation of the States.

I have heard with many gentlemen of learning and ability in this country, and when I asked the point as one of the most common of the Union, I have heard that the matter is not a matter of the Union, but the right of every State as to the trade in slaves, and that the Constitution has delegated to Congress a specific power to lay a tax on the trade, to prohibit the slave trade. He then argued that the general restriction upon the power of Congress, such as that regarding the operation of the citizens of a particular State, could be urged as rendering an act unconstitutional when Congress had been clothed by the Constitution with a particular power to perform that very act. It was to be presumed, indeed it was insisted, that to the extent to which such particular power, thus delegated in the Constitution, might work injustice to any of the States, and operate unequally upon the citizens of such States, those States had, in agreeing to the Constitution, which delegated the power to Congress, waived the inequality and injustice that might result from its exercise. There may be, said this gentleman to whom I allude, a necessity established by the Constitution, that a law shall not be unequal in its operation on Mississippi; but still that is a general provision, and one, therefore, that cannot be applied to defeat the particular power with which Mississippi has clothed the General Government, the power to lay an interdict on the slave trade. The States have given Congress the power to do that at all hazards, whether its operation be unequal or not, and hence its inequality cannot make it unconstitutional.

Now, if it be true that Congress does have this special power delegated to it to forbid the trade in question, the argument that I have referred to is impregnable, and it never could be contended with any sort of fairness that the laws against the trade with Africa for her negroes are unconstitutional because of their inequality. I admit the full force of the position that the Federal Government, when exercising such a special power particularly delegated to it, cannot be met with the objection that the exercise of that power is contrary to some general restriction of the Constitution. I admit that Congress may prohibit the slave trade, if there be a specific power to do

so given to it by the Constitution, although the prohibition should work the most outrageous inequality upon the State of Mississippi. So the natural inquiry follows next, whether there be any such special power particularly delegated to Congress by the Constitution as that of prohibiting the slave trade.

I know very well what the general conviction of the country is on the subject—it is, that the Constitution does contain a clause that specifically delegates the power in question to the Federal Government. When I ask where that clause is found that carries with it any such particular power, gentlemen point at once to the provision that reads as follows:

“The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight.”

Their argument is, that since Congress is only for the space of twenty years forbidden to stop the slave trade, of course it must be meant that Congress shall have the power to stop it after the twenty years expire; and that this partial prohibition laid upon the power of Congress for a short time involves, therefore, within itself a positive delegation of power to Congress to lay its interdict on the slave trade after 1808, the time when the prohibition on the exercise of this power by Congress expires. Now, I take that argument to be false, although it certainly is very specious and plausible; and I think it will not be difficult to make its fallacy manifest, and, indeed, absolutely palpable.

And first, let me remark and pray you not to forget that this clause which we are considering is not itself an express delegation of power to the General Government. It says only that the government shall not do a certain thing before a particular time, without adding that after that time it may do it.

Now, if the government could do anything at all without some delegation of power to do it, and this thing that it could do independently of any delegation of power, should be prohibited to be done only for a few years, of course when the prohibition expired, the power would revive, and the government might exercise this power, then not prohibited, and obtained indeed not by virtue of any delegation in the first instance. To make an application of this general principle, which is founded in reason and common sense, if your Federal Government could have had any authority to arrest the slave trade without some sort of grant of such authority in the constitution, it would, of course, have followed that when this partial prohibition was incorporated in the Constitution to prevent that trade from being stopped before 1808, it would only have partially curtailed the power of the Federal Government, and as soon as the limitation expired, the power to stop the trade would have revived, and might have been exercised without impropriety by the Government. In that case, in the event that the Government had had any power to prohibit this trade aside from the powers delegated to it by the States through the Constitution, nothing more than the clause we have in hand would have been required, in order that after 1808 the Fed-

eral Government should pass its present laws against that trade. The limitation on its authority having expired, its authority, which we are supposing now, for the sake of the argument, it had at first without delegation, would be restored. It would not need, after the declaration that Congress shall not prohibit the slave trade prior to 1808—it would not need, I say, that you infer some such additional clause to have been intended and implied, as would give Congress authority to do what it has done.

But the supposed case I put, of a government having powers that it did not get by delegation, is not the true case. Congress has no power except such as the Constitution clothes it with. If it cannot derive some authority from the Constitution to forbid the importation of negroes into your State from Africa, it cannot forbid their importation. Its powers are all delegated powers, and those who deem the clause under investigation to involve a delegation of power to Congress to prohibit our bringing negroes here from abroad, recognize the fact I have mentioned, that the Constitution must confer a power before the government can exercise it. They say, however, that when we read of Congress not having power to prohibit the slave trade prior to a certain year, we must of course understand that it can prohibit it after that year; we must understand the words to be implied, that after 1808 Congress may exercise a discretion in this matter. Their reading of the provision is, that prior to eighteen hundred and eight the prohibition cannot be made by Congress, but after that time it may. The last part of the clause, as they read it, however, is merely an implication. Accordingly if they are right in considering this clause as itself delegating a power to Congress, it is only through the agency of implication that they are right.

Now, I acknowledge there are powers implied in the Constitution. A power which is "necessary and proper" for the exercise of some power which the Constitution confers, is declared by the Constitution itself to be implicitly delegated. But the claim of power for the arrest of the foreign trade in negroes, is not based on an implication of this character. No one alleges that this is a thing that Congress may lawfully do, because of its being necessary and proper for the exercise of some other power delegated to Congress. The implication upon which is rested the power of Congress to prohibit the slave trade, is an implication of a very different sort; and while there is, unquestionably, a good foundation in reason and in the Constitution, for confessing that Congress may do many things which the Constitution may not expressly tell Congress to do, because of these things being necessary and proper for the due discharge of the duties of Congress, while there are beyond all dispute, many powers to be claimed by this sort of implication, yet this does not help out the argument at all of those gentlemen who would imply, from the clause I have before quoted, any power to prohibit the slave trade. They cannot point to anything that Congress may do, and say that such a prohibition is, in the language of the Constitution itself, "necessary and proper for carrying into execution" the power designated.

The nature of the implication which we have to deal with in con

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nection with the slave trade and the clause in question, is, I repeat, altogether another thing. They say that only because a particular law is prohibited for twenty years, it is also directed to be passed, in the discretion of the government, after that time. Now, in a government whose powers are all received by positive delegation, it cannot be said, that the bare prohibition of a power for one period of time, is itself the efficient delegation of it for another period of time.

If the government had powers other than those delegated, it might well be argued, from a temporary prohibition after it ceased, that the existence of the power prohibited was recognized in its prohibition—not that the power would be delegated by the temporary prohibition, but only that its existence would be recognized. The prohibition would only be necessary, because, during the time that it continued, but for its existence, the government might exercise the power; so that in forbidding a government that has powers of its own to do anything for a term of years, you do virtually acknowledge that, but for your temporary interdict, it might have done this thing which you prohibit, and this power, thus recognized, revives when the prohibition expires, though it certainly does not owe its origin to such prohibition. It is only a recognition of its existence, that it owes to the prohibition. The temporary prohibition does not itself give the subsequent power being, but only gives evidence of its being.

Then, it may be asked, why may not the clause in our Constitution, which forbids Congress to prohibit the slave trade before 1808, be regarded as an acknowledgment of a power which, but for this prohibition, Congress would have had of arresting the slave trade? And this is a question that it is easy to answer. I have no difficulty in perceiving and declaring that the fact of the Constitution's forbidding Congress to interfere with the slave trade until 1808, was owing to the conviction that there were clauses in the Constitution, under which Congress might have interfered at once with that trade, and, perhaps, might have immediately arrested its prosecution. I think it undeniable, that the statesmen of the last century incorporated the clause I have quoted, in the Constitution, as a check upon the power that Congress, in the exercise of its authority over the general foreign trade of the United States, would have exerted for immediately suppressing the slave trade with Africa.

Accordingly, the presence of this temporary restriction in the Constitution, I am compelled to regard as evidence of the fact that the power to prohibit the slave trade was supposed, by those who put this restriction there, to be somewhere delegated to Congress. This restriction, although not itself the efficient delegation of a power, does in fact imply that that power has been elsewhere delegated, which it restrained for twenty years: the restriction does not give the power, but only gives evidence of the power's being given elsewhere. That such a temporary restriction does not, cannot itself delegate a power, I must, finally, conclude to be an obvious dictate of common sense: though I am perfectly willing to admit, that since the restriction would be necessary only to restrain a power actually delegated, the

power to prohibit the slave trade may, indeed, be shown to exist from the existence of the temporary restriction, and that, too, notwithstanding that it cannot be shown to be specifically delegated by that restriction—it may be shown to exist, but not made to exist.

Look at the order, too, in which the various provisions of the Constitution are arranged, and you will find this one in relation to the slave trade, collated, not with those that contain delegations of power, but with those that are negative in their character, and prohibit the exercise of particular powers. It is placed in the same section of the Constitution with those provisions that forbid the passage of bills of attainder or *ex post facto* laws—that forbid a tax on the exports of any State—that forbid any preference to be given to the ports of one State over those of another, and forbid the granting of titles of nobility. And this is something which is not without its weight. The Constitution is not thrown together in a heterogeneous medley. The powers of Congress are enumerated in one place, and another part contains those provisions, which are, as I said, negative in their character. Now, it is natural to presume that the clause forbidding Congress to interfere with the slave trade, placed as it is among such negative provisions, was itself regarded as of a negative, prohibitory character. This clause was not intended to clothe Congress with a power, but to restrain Congress for some twenty years in the exercise of a power of regulating foreign trade, that would, but for such negative provision, have been at once fatal to the slave trade; for had it been intended to be the efficient and positive delegation of a power to Congress to prohibit the slave trade, it would, appropriately, have been classified among the provisions that clothed Congress with power, and not among those that laid restraints upon the General Government.

The circumstances, too, that attended the engrafting of this provision on the Constitution, as they are related in the history of the times, make it absolutely impossible to deny that I do not misconstrue the various provisions of the Constitution. I discover, by reference to a work entitled the "Secret Proceedings and Debates of the Convention of 1787," on page 64, that Luther Martin speaks of the power to regulate foreign commerce, as the efficient delegation of power to the General Government to prohibit the slave trade. It is plain, from his words, that this was the view of the matter taken in the convention. "It was urged," says he, "that, by this system, [meaning our present Constitution,] we were giving the General Government full and absolute power to regulate foreign commerce, under which general power it would have a right to restrain, or totally prohibit, the slave trade." For this reason, a proposition was made to except the slave trade from this general power, and prevent the prohibition of that trade by the General Government. "This was rejected by eight States," says Luther Martin, "Georgia, South Carolina, and, I think, North Carolina, voting for it. These States, however, insisted on laying a partial restriction on the power of Congress—on the general power of regulating foreign trade. It was very far from being the intention of those who thus prohibited the

stopping of the slave trade by the Federal Government prior to 1808, to make that prohibition itself the delegation of power to Congress to arrest that trade after 1808. The temporary interdict was laid upon the Congressional power, at the instance of those States that were unwilling to see the slave trade closed at all. They inserted it, not to give a power, but to check one. So that we may safely conclude, both from the deductions of reason and those of history, that the power to prohibit the slave trade is not a specific power, to be obtained by implication from that provision of the Constitution, which forbids Congress to prohibit it prior to 1808.

In a late case, too, in the Supreme Court of the United States, Judge Campbell, in remarking upon what he considered a bad argument to show the power of Congress to do a particular thing, says: "The refusal of a power to Congress to legislate in one place, seems (in the erroneous argument of counsel) to justify the seizure of the same power when another place for its exercise is found. This proceeds from a radical error, which lies at the foundation of much of this discussion. It is, that the Federal Government may lawfully do whatever is not prohibited by the Constitution. This would have been a fundamental error if no amendments to the Constitution had been made. But the final expression of the will of the people of the State in the 10th amendment, is that the powers of the Federal Government are limited to the grants of the Constitution." And these remarks of Judge Campbell, from the Supreme Bench of the United States, are only another authoritative confirmation of the principle which I have attempted to establish—first by reason, then by history, and now, finally, by the power of great names. That principle is, that in this government of delegated powers alone, a prohibition laid on the government, preventing it from doing a particular thing under certain specified circumstances, does not, as I said before, give being, of itself, to any authority for that government to do that same thing under different circumstances.

But it only requires that we apply this principle to the point we are investigating, in order to discover that it is erroneous to deduce the power of Congress, in prohibiting the slave trade, from that constitutional restriction which says it shall not be prohibited prior to 1808. The most that we can draw from this provision, in support of the authority of Congress in this matter, is, that the presence of the restriction gives evidence of the fact that, but for the restriction, Congress might have used some power delegated to it to prohibit the slave trade. The only other power that could properly have been so used, the power which history shows us was thought likely to be thus used, was the power of regulating foreign commerce. And so Congress is driven to this power, in order to establish that it has any power over the slave trade. But then it must give up the pretension that there is in the Constitution a particular power delegated to it, either expressly or impliedly, to do a certain particular thing, that is, to prohibit the slave trade. As soon as it is compelled, however, to abandon this prevention, it cannot say that the general re-

quisition of the Constitution making it necessary for the laws of the General Government to operate without peculiar inequality and injustice to some of the States and their citizens, is inapplicable as a test of the constitutionality of its laws against the slave trade. Though these general requirements would not suffice to defeat the laws against the slave trade, in the event of those laws being particularly authorized in the Constitution, yet, when they are not thus particularly authorized, but are founded only on a power given to Congress in general terms to regulate foreign commerce, they are to be passed with due regard to all those general restrictions which the Constitution has laid upon the exercise of such general powers.

Every law that is passed, in the event the Constitution does not specifically authorize its passage, is subject to the operation of the principle I have enunciated. It is necessarily the case, that the Constitution devolves upon Congress the exercise of many powers by the use of terms that contain a great deal in a very few words. In order to avoid the misuse of these powers, the Constitution throws certain barriers around such extensive delegations of power, and requires that the government, in the use of those powers, allow certain general principles, to be found in the Constitution, to have their sway and regulate the conduct of the government. Whenever the public authorities contravene these general restrictions, their action is of no force—it becomes unconstitutional. Now, one of these restrictions which pervade the exercise of every power of the Federal Government, is that the citizens of each of the United States shall be dealt by equally; and this essential principle of our legislation and government frequently renders laws unconstitutional, when they attack the equal rights of the citizens of any particular States.

The General Government, for instance, has the power to control trade generally between the States; but any attempt by that government to stop the trade in slaves between these States would be clearly unconstitutional, solely because of its unjust inequality to the slaveholder of the Southern States. The General Government has exclusive authority, likewise, to legislate for the District of Columbia: but a law that should prevent Southern gentlemen from going there with their negroes, would be shockingly unjust and unequal in its operation on the citizens of the slaveholding States of this confederacy; and for no other reason but this, that law would be unconstitutional. The General Government, too, has the power of legislating for the Territories; but the legislation of the General Government must not violate the equal rights of the various citizens of this confederacy: so, the Supreme Court lately decided, that a law passed by Congress, in the exercise of its general powers of legislation in the Territories, was unconstitutional, because it prevented the citizens of the slaveholding States from occupying those Territories with as much freedom as their northern neighbors. Chief Justice Taney pronounced the opinion, most distinctly, that the only reason why Congress could not, in governing the Territories, abolish *slavery*, was, that such a law came in conflict with that essential principle of the American Constitution, guaranteeing equal justice to the

defense of all the States, and requiring the national legislation to be conformable to this requisition. As another instance of the application of this general restriction, which the Constitution applies to all general delegations of power, I may mention the fact, that it invalidates laws that are established for protecting pecuniary interests in one part of the country at the expense of another part of the country: such laws have an operation at once unjust and unequal, and they thence become unconstitutional.

Now, if we can show that the operation of the laws against the slave trade has become grossly unjust and unequal—that it is productive of this inequality at the expense of Mississippi, we prove that Mississippi has a right to complain of these laws as unconstitutional. They are passed only under a general power of regulating foreign commerce. That power, like all others given in terms of that extensive character, is subject to the operation of the principle that requires Mississippi to be treated with as much justice, and as much equality, as any other State in this Union. If the laws against the slave trade do not conform to that principle, but operate with injustice and inequality upon the Southern slaveholder, they are unconstitutional.

Now I am speaking purely of the principles of a constitutional character, that govern this case. It is not my purpose, here, to go into any argument in order to show, that this prohibition of the slave trade has in fact become unjust and unequal in its operation on the slave-buying States of the confederacy. I merely mean to express my own profound conviction that such has come to be its character. It does not admit of a doubt, in my mind, that though the laws against the trade with Africa in negroes might not have been unjust and unequal in their operation upon the slave-buying States, at the time of their passage, yet they have since become so. I remarked this once to a learned and able gentleman of the legal profession; and though he agreed with me, his reply was, that it seemed to be making a sort of sliding scale of one's constitutional opinions, and that it would be difficult to make men see how a particular law might be constitutional at one time, and unconstitutional at another. But I apprehend that he was mistaken. Mr. Calhoun defended the propriety and constitutionality of a National Bank at one time, because it was necessary and proper for regulating the currency, and this last was a duty imposed on Congress by the Constitution. At another time he resisted the establishment of such a bank, because it was unconstitutional; and there was nothing inconsistent in the two positions; for at one time the bank was needed for regulating the currency, and was for that very reason constitutional; and on the other occasion it was not needed to carry out this duty of Congress, and its existence ceased to find any warrant in the Constitution; so that precisely the same measure may be entirely constitutional at one moment, and entirely the reverse at another.

Now, in the same manner, when the slave States greatly outnumbered their northern neighbors, it might have been a very constitutional law, which, in the regulation of foreign commerce, prohibited

the slave trade, and brought about a state of equilibrium between the States interested in protecting the slaveholders, and those interested in protecting their brethren of the North. Yet that same law may well be said to have already worked the unequal disadvantage of the slaveholding interests, now that it has not only brought the slaveholding States down to a position of equality with the North in political power, but has actually enabled the North to reach a degree of political power far higher than the South enjoys. So the law against the slave trade has, in bringing us to our present position of absolute inferiority in political consequence, actually become unequal and unjust to the southern portion of this Union, and it is becoming more unequal and unjust every day. Every day the regulations of the American government on the subject of the slave trade are holding down the energies of the South, and preventing their onward march to the establishment of more slave States, and to the restoration of their political equality; every day while this state of things is made to cramp the development of the Southern people, there is a system of things prevailing that tends to promote the development of the North. The immigration from Europe, not being able to find here a corresponding immigration from Africa, is forced to organize the new States which the emigrants establish as free States, and these emigrants are compelled to array themselves on the side of the Northern people. This is a system of things forced on them and on us, by the operation of that law which prevents the importation of negroes from abroad. It is, I say therefore, a law that I cannot look on as other than unjust and unequal in its operation on the slaveholding States. If it is thus unjust and unequal in reducing us to be an unequal power in this government, to be at the mercy of that paramount, master power, which this course of legislation has so rapidly built up, and is now so rapidly building up higher, at the North—if, I say, these effects of this legislation make it unequal and unjust to the Southern people, then the Constitution makes it unconstitutional. If these effects that I have spoken of as flowing indisputably from the laws against the slave trade do make those laws unequal to us of Mississippi, then those laws violate that provision which requires that the government do equal justice to Mississippians, and they must be unconstitutional.

But I have said that I did not intend to discuss the question of fact, whether this legislation of Congress had become unequal, and therefore unconstitutional. That discussion would be too extensive to be embraced in a speech. It would embrace many points relating to the natural right of the Southern people to the only form of cheap labor that they can ever hope to enjoy. It would embrace an examination into the great additional value that would be given to all sorts of property in Mississippi, as soon as we obtain negroes in greater abundance, and at lower prices. It would equally involve an inquiry into the great variety of occupations that a full supply of slave labor might enable the people of Mississippi to pursue, occupations of an agricultural nature, and also those of a commercial and manufacturing character. But the advantages of which we are

deprived when we are deprived of a free trade with Africa in negroes, I cannot even allude to; I can only say that they are so many, and so great, and so much our natural rights, and that the privation is such a clog upon our movements here at the South, as to leave me in no sort of doubt as to the inequality and injustice of the law that lays us under all our present disadvantages. This conviction of the inequality of that law is a conviction of its unconstitutionality; for, it being a law not specially provided for in the Constitution, it is liable to become unconstitutional, whenever it becomes unequal, and violates the general, equalizing restriction that Congress must observe in exercising all its general powers, and as well in exercising its power of regulating foreign commerce as in exercising any other.

So far I have dealt with the laws against the foreign trade in negroes, as mere regulations of commerce. That the Federal Government must proceed upon this power over our foreign commerce, in order to put a stop to the slave trade, Luther Martin proves, when he states that the convention of 1787 considered the particular power over the slave trade as included in the general power over commerce. Congress, however, has declared this trade piracy; and there is no reason why Congress may not so declare it, after it is once established that, in the regulation of commerce, Congress may constitutionally prohibit that trade. But the history of the matter shows, as otherwise our own reason would have shown, that the prohibition is essentially a commercial regulation, and when this commercial regulation, interdicting the slave trade becomes constitutional, it is quite proper that the penal powers of the Federal Government should be brought into exercise to make the prohibition good. Congress uses its power to "define piracies," and makes the prosecution of the slave trade a crime—it thus renders its interdict effectual; but the authority of the government to prohibit that trade comes from quite a different quarter, and not from the power to define piracies. The slave trade must first be prohibited in the regulation of commerce, and after this is constitutionally done, any sort of penalties may be denounced against it—any sort of criminal stigma fixed upon it; but if it should at any time be unconstitutional for Congress to employ its authority for the regulation of commerce in such a way as to arrest the slave trade, that very instant it would become equally unconstitutional for Congress to declare that trade an offence against our criminal law. When we reason, therefore, from the inequality of these laws, and establish their unconstitutionality as regulations of commerce, it is no answer—it will not support the constitutionality of laws against the slave trade, to refer to the power of Congress to define piracies, and say that it has so defined that trade. The law that makes it piracy is passed only in aid of altogether another law, which last regulates commerce, and thus prohibits the trade with Africa in negroes; and whenever the latter law cannot stand because of its inequality, of course the mere auxiliaries of such law, the mere penal enactments to prevent the violation of the principal commerce

regulations, fall with the fall of those regulations. The criminal statutes are founded on the commercial statutes, and the unconstitutionality of the one makes the other equally unconstitutional.

But, though the law against the slave trade is unequal and unconstitutional, yet there is, as I said at first, very little hope of procuring its repeal. The Congress is too much under Northern influence for this measure of equal justice to make its way through that body; and this fact is itself an evidence of the unconstitutional pre-eminence that the laws against the slave trade have thrown into the hands of Northern fanatics. It is an evidence of the operation of those laws to overthrow that constitutional equality, which ought to have been preserved between the Northern and Southern States, and which ought now, since it has been lost, to be restored at the earliest possible day. Neither have I much confidence, I must confess, in our securing from the Supreme Court a decision that will protect the Southern States in this matter. The Supreme Court, it is true, upheld the constitutionality of the claims made by Southern men, that they should enjoy the Territories of this Union equally with Northern men. But the Supreme Court upheld a tariff, at one time, that involved the most shocking inequalities and injustices to the slave States.

But whether the Supreme Court comes forward to our assistance or not, there is, as that contest on the tariff showed, a remedy afforded by the constitutional organization of these States, which is as ample as we could desire. When a law is unconstitutional, though it be upheld by every department of the Federal Government, it is not for us to submit tamely to that government's usurpations. We may nullify the law—we may interpose the shield of State power to protect our citizens against the tyrannical enactment. We may tell our citizens to buy negroes imported from Africa, just wherever one is offered to them; and we may tell the officers of the Federal Government that they cannot execute that unconstitutional law within the limits of our State; that we have never given them authority to do so, and have no sort of intention to suffer them to do so.

I have no design, however, of arguing the abstract theory of nullification just now. I take that theory for granted, as I have taken another point for granted in the course of this argument, namely, the inequality, in point of fact, of the laws against the slave trade. My main attempt has been to show that the power of prohibiting the slave trade was not a particular power given by the constitution, but only a particular application of a general power of regulating foreign commerce, and to show that it was, therefore, within the control of the general restrictions of the Constitution. I say, that; arguing only to show that if unequal it was also unconstitutional, I have, for the most part, presumed the laws against this trade to be, confessedly, unequal. I now presume that if a law is shown to be unconstitutional, it may, with propriety, be nullified. Both these points might be discussed at considerable length; but the discussion of nullification is one in which I could hardly say anything new, and the discussion of the other point, whether the South is an unequal

sufferer by the laws against the slave trade, I have not time to engage in. Besides, I think it a question that every Mississippian will answer in the same way that I would, and therefore it does not need to be discussed. Mississippians will be all inclined, I think, to believe the laws in question unjust and unequal; and if they believe that, the argument I have made applies, to make them believe those laws to be unconstitutional.

It will be to very little purpose, however, that a law is shown to be unconstitutional, unless your auditors be disposed to nullify. Now, I know that nullification is not a popular doctrine at this day; but the doctrine that the States are sovereign is popular, and the two great champions of consolidation and State sovereignty, respectively, Mr. Webster and Mr. Calhoun, agreed that there was no possible chance of adhering to the doctrine of State sovereignty without also acceding to that of nullification. And I believe that at this day Mr. Calhoun's conservative, Union-saving doctrine of nullification could easily be made the most popular of all others among our people.

I believe that the people of Mississippi could easily be brought to realize, that their only constitutional hope of enjoying their natural and just right to draw more negroes from Africa, springs from their power and right to nullify the unconstitutional laws of Congress. They could easily be made to perceive that through nullification alone has the South any hope of preserving slavery everywhere that it now exists, and of adding to the number of slave States in this Union. Mississippi has her destinies in her own hands. It does not depend upon the Northern people, but it depends on us, whether we will restore the Southern people to a position of equality in this confederacy. The only thing it requires is, that we tell our people to buy negroes wherever they can get them, and that we will protect them against the arm of the Federal Government, and against its attempts upon them here at home. Negroes will certainly be imported into Mississippi in abundance, if we will only declare that no power shall touch them after their importation. Negroes are imported into Cuba, notwithstanding the perils of the seas; and why may they not be brought here, and brought here quite as abundantly, and at prices quite as low. The only thing it needs is, that the people of Mississippi stand by their rights in this matter; and if they do not stand by those rights—if they prove untrue to the memory of their courageous forefathers, who stood by their rights against the British Parliament in 1776, and against the Federal Government in 1832—if Mississippians do not seize this opportunity of snatching their section from a position of still more decided inferiority than that they now labor under—if, by their recreancy, Mississippians contribute to plunge their Southern brethren into a still more hopeless subjection to the growing giant of Northern fanaticism, and contribute to hurry upon us the horrors of internal dissension and of dissolution, which our Northern masters seem so willing, and seem about to be so able, to force upon us—if Mississippi and our sister States do not at once begin the restoration of Southern equality in this government, when it only requires a little firmness on their part to accomplish that res-

toration, and thus save the Union from destruction—then will our people and this Southern people receive, as they will deserve, very little sympathy, very little other than contempt, for their lamentations over the departure of their glory and the triumph of their enemies.

ART. VII.—THE COAL PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF OHIO.*

OHIO has been known to contain coal since the first settlement of the country by the whites. It was observed by the hunters in the beds and banks of the streams, and occasionally on the hillsides, or under some overhanging rocky cliff. It was thus plainly exposed to view at Pomeroy; and Mr. Pomeroy, then a merchant of Boston, on seeing a coal-bed of superior quality, and within a few hundred yards of the Ohio river, was enraptured with the future prospects and wealth of a region then a wilderness, but with a productive soil and untold treasures of mineral fuel, which he looked upon, even then, when almost the whole region was covered by a heavy growth of trees, as the main element of motive power for extensive manufacturing industry, and as fuel for the comfort and enjoyment of unborn generations of mankind. Here he bought property, then deemed of little value, and no more valuable for the coal contained in it; here he applied his energies and his means; through years of toil, and trials, and difficulties, he persevered, till his coal met a continually-increasing market, established a good name as a manufacturing and domestic fuel, and now for many years, in fact from the first use of coal, it has been the point of the greatest coal production in Ohio.

Coal occurs in twenty-nine counties in Ohio, and the area occupied by the rocks of the carboniferous formation, is about 12,000 square miles, or nearly one third of the area of Ohio. Coal is mined in some of the counties only for blacksmiths' use, and fuel for a few fires and steam-engines, wood being yet abundant and cheap. In quantity, coal in Ohio may be considered practically inexhaustible, and over most of the territory is little appreciated by the owners as an element of future productive industry, and a source of wealth. Where coal is mined for market, and made a source of business, and where manufacturing establishments mine and use their own coal, the value of coal property capable of availability, is better understood. Those who do understand this are not particularly anxious to enlighten their neighbors, especially if their lands would, at any time, be a desirable acquisition.

The coal production and consumption in Ohio have been rapidly increasing, almost in a geometrical progression, since

*By W. W. Mather, Esq., in the Mining Magazine.

the first use of coal, beyond its place of production. Coal, in small quantities, was sent down the Ohio river from Pittsburgh and Pomeroy on rafts, and afterward on flat-boats, which is still continued from sundry places as a small business; but at the main points of production, the coal is transported in barges, towed to market by a steam tug-boat. Each tug-boat usually tows eight barges from Pomeroy, New-Hartford, Mason City, and West Columbia (towns near Pomeroy on the Ohio), and each barge carries a load of 6,000 to 12,000 bushels (240 to 400 tons*), according to the stage of water, so that each trip of the tug-boat tows down 48,000 to 96,000 bushels (1,900 to 3,800 tons) of coal. The Pittsburgh and Youghiogeny coal is transported in the same way, much more than formerly, when the coal was floated down the stream in flat-boats in pairs. This mode of floating down by the current subjected the owners to many severe losses of boats, wrecked on the bars and snags, and by storms and ice, and by rapid changes in the stage of water; and the mode of transportation by barges and tugs, is found in the end as cheap, and far more reliable for steady business.

The Ohio canals, as soon as opened for business, began to carry some coal, which steadily increased until railroads became carriers; but the cheaper carriage by water will cause canals and the Ohio river to float the coal sent to market from their borders, except in favored locations, where railroad facilities and an extensive and ready market cause land transportation. Cleveland is a market that draws much coal, even from the banks of the Ohio, in consequence of the great consumption, and her facilities as a point of distribution to supply the various lake markets, and the steamboats navigating the lake. Cincinnati, in time of low water, or obstruction of navigation of the Ohio by ice, receives considerable supplies of coal from Vinton and Jackson counties by the Cincinnati and Marietta Railroad; from Perry County and from the Hocking Valley, by the Wilmington and Zanesville Railroad; from Zanesville and Cambridge, and Coshocton, by the Central and Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati railroads.

These railroads and their branches transport most of the coal from the coal region for the supply of the central and southwestern parts of Ohio, that are not furnished from Cincinnati, as a distributing point for the Ohio river coal, and furnish Cincinnati when the coal is scarce or high.

The following table shows the coal production of Ohio, according to the census returns and Mansfield's Statistical Report, and received at Cincinnati and Cleveland:

* In Ohio the legal ton is 2,000 pounds, and bushel of coal 80 pounds, so that 25 bushels of coal make a ton. At the furnaces and in the iron trade, 2,268 pounds custom make a ton of iron, ore, or coal.

	Bushels.		Cincinnati.	Cleveland.	Aggregate.
Coal Mined in 1840..	3,513,409	Coal received in 1840..	1,500,000	150,000	1,650,000
" " 1850..	8,000,000	" " 1850..	4,500,000	2,332,604	6,832,604
" " 1853..	32,800,000*	" " 1853..	8,000,000*	6,000,000	14,000,000*
" " 1857..	46,100,910	" " 1857..	14,540,000	8,950,000	23,510,000

* R. R. Record, vol. 2, p. 534.

Mr. Mansfield's estimate for the coal production of Ohio for 1853, included the production of those counties only where coal is mined for distant markets—those along the Ohio and on the Ohio canals and Muskingum Improvement. The numbers in the following table (A) marked thus * are from his estimate for 1853, in the Railroad Record (vol. ii. p. 534); and his estimate for 1857, in his Statistical Report (p. 90) marked thus †.

A.—Table of Coal Production in Ohio, 1853-'57.

	1853.		1854.		1857.	
	Bushels.	Tons.	Bushels.	Tons.	Bushels.	Tons.
Meigs(Pomeroy).....	*8,000,000	320,000	9,000,000	360,000	10,000,000	400,000 a.
Athens.....	*1,500,000	60,000	2,000,000	80,000	†2,000,000	80,000 b.
Summit.....	*4,000,000	160,000	5,000,000	200,000	†6,000,000	240,000 c.
Stark.....	*1,000,000	40,000	2,000,000	80,000	†2,000,000	80,000 d.
Fuscarawas.....	* 500,000	20,000	1,000,000	40,000	†1,795,000	71,800 e.
Muskingum.....	*2,000,000	80,000	2,000,000	80,000	†2,000,000	80,000 f.
Lawrence.....	*2,000,000	80,000	3,000,000	120,000	†2,500,000	100,000 g.
Lackson.....	*1,000,000	40,000	1,500,000	60,000	1,600,000	64,000 h.
Vinton.....	* 300,000	12,000	1,500,000	60,000	1,700,000	48,000 i.
Joshocton.....	* 300,000	12,000	800,000	32,000	1,000,000	40,000 j.
Jefferson.....	*1,000,000	40,000	2,000,000	80,000	†5,000,000	200,000 k.
Belmont.....	*1,000,000	40,000	2,000,000	80,000	†3,500,000	140,000 l.
Licking.....	* 200,000	8,000	200,000	8,000	250,000	10,000 m.
Franklin.....	* 600,000	24,000	2,000,000	80,000	†4,300,000	172,000 n.
Washington.....	* 200,000	8,000	200,000	8,000	† 200,000	8,000
Monroe.....	* 200,000	8,000	250,000	10,000	300,000	12,000
Morgan.....	* 100,000	4,000	300,000	12,000	300,000	12,000 o.
Harrison.....	300,000	12,000	500,000	20,000	500,000	20,000
Juveney.....	1,000,000	40,000	1,500,000	60,000	†1,200,000	48,000
Carroll.....	1,000,000	40,000	1,000,000	40,000	1,000,000	40,000
Madison.....	1,000,000	40,000	3,500,000	140,000	†4,340,000	173,600
Columbiana.....	2,000,000	80,000	3,000,000	120,000	†1,365,000	54,600
Portage.....	1,500,000	60,000	2,000,000	80,000	2,000,000	80,000
Perry.....	500,000	20,000	1,000,000	40,000	†1,000,000	40,000
Galena.....	400,000	16,000	600,000	24,000	600,000	24,000
Voble.....	500,000	20,000	500,000	20,000	500,000	20,000
Wayne.....	1,000,000	40,000	1,500,000	60,000	1,500,000	60,000
Idimes.....	500,000	20,000	800,000	32,000	800,000	32,000
Cicoto.....	300,000	12,000	400,000	16,000	400,000	16,000
Locking.....	50,000	2,000	100,000	4,000	200,000	8,000
	33,950,000	1,358,000	51,150,000	2,046,000	59,850,000	2,394,000

NOTES.

a. 6,000,000 bushels transported on Ohio, 2,000,000 steamboats, 1,000,000 salt manufacture, 1,000,000 ironworks and fuel, &c.

b. 1,566,907 bushels received and passed Logan on Canal, and 600,000 more should be added on saltworks, fuel, steam engines, &c.

c. 5,000,000 over Ohio Canal.

d. Ironworks use much. 3,000,000 would probably be nearer the truth.

e. 2,000,000, including domestic consumption.

f. Muskingum should be 2,000,000 for 1850.

g. Ironworks and manufactories use 2,000,000.

h. Ironworks, manufactories, and steam engines, use 1,000,000.

i. 500,000 to Erie, over Erie and Marietta R. R., and probably 600,000 more to other places, ironworks, steam engines, and fuel the remainder.

j. Canal and railroad transportation and home consumption.

k. Chiefly goes to Cleveland by railroad.

l. 1,800,000 moved by river and railroad.

m. Fuel and coal-oil works.

n. 2,500,000 carried to Cleveland and to Erie.

o. Saltworks, steam engines, fuel, &c.

The counties not marked are supposed to produce about the amounts indicated for R. R. transportation, steam engines, domestic fuel, iron smelting, iron manufacturing, etc. These, it may be seen, swell the aggregate probable production in 1853 from 23,800,000, to 33,950,000 bushels, and the production in 1857, from 46,100,910, to 59,850,000 bushels, and these aggregates are supposed to represent about the total quantities of coal mined in Ohio during those years. Some of the numbers may be too high, some perhaps too low, but they are believed to be near the truth.

In 1853. 33,950,000 bushels—1,358,000 tons of 2,000 lbs. or 25 bushels $\frac{3}{4}$ ton.
In 1857. 59,850,000 " —2,394,000 "

The following table shows the coal movements on the Ohio canals and the Muskingum slackwater improvement. It gives but a limited view of the movement of Ohio coals—only of those mined along the borders of the Ohio, Hocking and Walhonding, and Ohio and Pennsylvania canals, and transported to their marts at home and abroad. The Muskingum improvement population consumes all the coal produced along its borders except what is sent over railroads, and also some of the Youghiogheny coals.

The Miami and Miami Extension, and Wabash and Erie canals, transport coal from Cincinnati to supply Hamilton, Middleton, Dayton and Piqua, with coal for manufacturing purposes, and from Toledo the northeastern Ohio coal, to supply the towns in northwestern Ohio for similar uses.

The transportation of Ohio coals on the Ohio river exceeds the amounts moved on all the canals; and the coal movement from Pomeroy and its vicinity alone, even exceeds all the coal movements on the canals and slackwater improvements of Ohio, during any one year since they began to be used.

Railroad movements of coal from the coal regions in Ohio commenced in 1852, on the Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad; then on the Ohio and Central Railroad in 1853; the Cincinnati and Marietta Railroad in 1855; the Cleveland and Mahoning in 1856; the Cincinnati, Wilmington and Zanesville in 1854, and the Steubenville and Indiana Railroad in 1855 or 1856, and which latter road and the Central Railroad bring coal to Columbus.

It will be seen from the following table (B), that there has been a steady and rapid increase in the movement and consequent consumption of coal, not only in the coal districts, but exterior to them, from 1836 to 1853, when railroads began to transport coal—that the maximum amount was in 1853, when 11,404,523 bushels, or 456,181 tons, were received on the Ohio

canals and slackwater navigation, paying tolls on these improvements. The quantities received in the different markets are steadily and rapidly increasing in amount, but the amounts from railroad transportation, and the amounts from the Ohio river navigation from the various mining districts, are not ascertained. The amounts thus transported can be ascertained, perhaps accurately, from the railroads, but only by a rude approximation from the various mining points on the Ohio; 10,000,000 bushels from Pomeroy, 2,000,000 from Yellow Creek and Steubenville, and near Wheeling, and 100,000 from near Hanging Rock, is not far from the amounts shipped and sold to steamboats of Ohio coals on the Ohio river.

B.—Movement of Coal and Coke on the Ohio Canals and Muskingum Improvement, from 1836-'57 (except 1851).—By W. W. Mather. Prepared from the Returns of the Collectors in the Reports of the Board of Public Works.

	Ohio Canal. Arrived.	Walbonding Canal. Arrived.	Pa. & Ohio Canal. Arrived.	Muskingum R. Improvement. Arrived.	Hocking Canal. Arrived.	Miami & Erie, & Ext. Canal. Arrived.	Total. Arrived.
1836	102,407					2,847	105,254
1837	672,876					16,940	689,816
1838	189,719					19,716	209,435
1839	294,721					27,557	322,278
1840	401,787				16,832	33,027	451,646
1841	679,136			12,818	61,098	47,378	800,430
1842	641,193			{ 6,633 }	64,856	18,283	731,680
				{ 715 }			
1843	841,589			8,856	85,991	47,070	983,506
1844	827,853			26,603		60,976	915,432
1845	1,205,961			24,206		52,148	1,282,315
1846	1,221,895			35,385	203,925	85,748	1,546,953
1847	1,847,048			56,682	381,509	116,449	2,401,688
1848	2,998,777			52,576	522,197	183,722	3,757,472
1849	2,982,864			75,316	526,345	43,997	3,628,522
1850	3,116,890		1,386,185	66,511	513,642	176,805	5,259,943
1851							
1852	5,406,536	6,125	1,934,875	807,743	864,340	179,719	9,813,013
1853	6,900,391	6,125	2,548,550	353,575	1,026,033	262,599	11,404,523
1854	6,484,654	16,832	2,856,800	153,240	2,264,416	276,570	9,195,712
1855	7,896,821			206,034	1,042,606	322,385	9,467,846
1856	6,680,344			157,628	583,742	236,383	7,658,097
1857	6,136,829			83,361	1,364,320	383,423	7,967,933
Bushels....	67,530,261	29,082	8,725,350	2,127,782	9,521,852	2,953,744	78,593,494
Tons (legal)	2,291,209	1,163	249,014	85,111	380,874	118,149	3,143,740

The following table (C) shows the quantities of coal received and cleared at Cleveland, Columbus, and Dayton—an approximation to the consumption up to the periods when railroads began to bring coal; and so far as the canals are concerned, the progress of the coal trade from 1836 to 1857.

C.—Receipts and Shipments of Coal and Coke at certain Towns, by the Ohio Canals.

	CINCINNATI. Coal and Coke.		CLEVELAND. Coal and Coke.		COLUMBUS. Coal and Coke.		DAYTON. Coal and Coke.	
	Cleared.		Arrived.	Cle'd.	Arrived.	Cleared.	Arrived.	Cle'd.
1835			50,473					
1836			84,184					
1837	40,729		183,484		11,445			
1838	39,250		73,292		16,859			
1839	52,537		134,881	1,010	27,122	3,183		
1840	54,282		172,206	1,933	92,548	800	16,585	
1841	74,090		478,370	2,843	47,811		20,400	729
1842	31,727		466,846		45,936	4,661	8,322	
1843	41,182		577,369	241	64,185		30,261	2,430
1844	79,831		547,800	61	87,578		40,997	0,530
1845	77,653		886,354	1,273	117,857	77	33,789	50
1846	129,787		859,578	17,774	100,490		53,661	613
1847	136,082		1,212,887	29,839	156,125		64,495	750
			13,299					
1848	171,715		1,967,717	4,468	293,738	440	67,528	1,054
1849	273,226		1,841,067	5,920	409,646			1,718
1850	201,764		2,364,158	14,286	303,770		105,312	938
1851	187,911		2,992,343	23,865	506,833	2,600	95,655	607
1852	276,370		3,963,286	1,469	679,207	105	135,975	1,401
1853	378,331		4,986,228†	5,124	824,049	1,909	173,597	950
1854	325,485		5,313,826†		475,234†	2,790	153,482	2,930
1855	* 679,385		6,342,614†	59,110	424,129†	600	212,725	254
1856	* 277,801		5,209,270†	7,007	418,865†	3,781	103,410†	5,223
1857	* 1,554,676		4,057,936†	78	842,374†	700	83,076†	

* Cincinnati receives her coal mostly by the Ohio, but some, since 1854, by R. R. For the supply of the Miami Valley towns.

† Cleveland receives large amounts of coal by R. R. since 1852. Increasing rapidly.

‡ Columbus receives large amounts of coal through the Central R. R. since 1853.

§ Dayton receives much coal now by R. R., through Columbus and Chillicothe.

The table (D) shows the same for several towns on the Ohio and Miami canals.

D.—A difference between the coal received and cleared at the Collector's office of the Canals and Slackwater Improvements of Ohio, and showing in an approximate manner the consumption of coal in those towns and vicinity.

Year.	Cleveland.	Columbus.	Circleville.	Chillicothe.	Hamilton.	Middletown.	Dayton.	Piqua.
1835	50,473							
1836	84,184	12,655		5,628	2,847			
1837	183,484	11,445		8,005		16,440		
1838	73,292	16,859	5,650	no ret'rns	5,225	14,391		500
1839	133,871	23,989	4,955		10,310	13,872		550
1840	169,263	71,548	4,093	7,703	5,517	6,970	16,385	4,100
1841	478,370	47,811	20,108*	21,348	8,825	8,693	25,646	2,000
1842	492,595	40,375	4,165*	14,680		7,676	8,332	2,125
1843	577,128	64,185	22,452	27,470	7,055	8,134	27,841	1,245
1844	547,799	87,578	15,149	23,619	8,126	7,900	34,447	3,562
1845	885,081	117,780	31,354	33,963	11,936	4,281	33,739	1,806
1846	841,804	100,490	14,718	95,523	20,210	8,005	53,028	3,517
1847	1,196,286	156,125	41,411	135,061	14,590	31,209	64,367	5,075
1848	1,963,249	293,298	69,199	226,744	59,773	45,490	66,274	7,458
1849	1,835,147	409,646	69,129	193,586	29,872			6,821
1850	2,349,888	303,770	68,060	191,589	32,177	19,200	107,374	9,171
1851	2,868,478	504,231	no r'tns	no ret'rns				
1852	3,961,817	679,102	8,002	217,868	6,504	8,550	134,574	9,463
1853	4,981,104	822,144	136,589	251,696	46,574	23,538	132,647	9,297
1854	4,970,120	472,444	101,241	299,026	49,454		150,552	10,343
1855	6,283,504	423,520	28,021	383,817	50,792		212,471	11,900
1856	5,202,263	415,084	32,324	286,028	72,628	37,635	97,187	2,975
1857	4,057,858	841,674	67,573	402,744	92,165	76,600	83,075	5,296

Large supplies of coal, constantly and rapidly increasing in amount, are carried into Cleveland* by several railroads; also to Columbus, over the Central and Steubenville railroads; so Circleville, over the Wilmington and Zanesville Railroad; so Chillicothe, over the Cincinnati and Marietta Railroad; so Portsmouth, over the Scioto and H. V. Railroad; also Dayton, over the Dayton, Xenia, and Columbus railroads; also qua, over the Steubenville and Indiana Railroad; also Dayton, Xenia, Hamilton, Piqua, and numerous places are partially supplied over the railroads leading out from Cincinnati, where coal is abundant and cheap.

Table (E) shows the whole progress of the coal trade consumption of Cleveland, so far as the canals are concerned, from 1827 to 1857; and the railroad transportation, so far as returns have been published and seen by the writer, from 1852 to 1856.

It will be seen from this table, not only that the consumption has been rapidly increased at Cleveland, but that from 1854 to 1857 the exports by shipment on the lake have exceeded half the amounts received from the canals and railroads. Cleveland is an important point for the shipment of coal, and has already reached an amount equal to 1,000 cargoes of coal, of 184 tons each, in 1855; and 1,000 cargoes, of 174 tons each, in 1856.

We omit the table. It shows the receipts of coal at Cleveland, in 1856, to have been—

By Canal	174,100 tons.
“ Lake.....	3,654 “
“ Railroad.....	77,353 “
City and steamboat consumption.....	80,682 “

The exports of coal from Pomeroy, on the Ohio, are still larger, and counting it at 8,000,000 bushels, or 320,000 tons, could be equal to 1,000 cargoes of 320 tons each. The total production of coal in Ohio, in 1857, including that mined not only for distant markets, but for home consumption, is supposed to have been about 59,890,000 bushels, or about 2,394,300 tons, of which about 520,000 tons were freighted down the Ohio, or sold to steamboats; 300,000 freighted on railroads; 361,208 on canals; leaving about 1,212,792 for consumption in the coal regions for fuel, manufacturing, smithing, &c.

The amount received by Cleveland and Pittsburg R. R. at				Tons.	Bushels.
at Cleveland, was in.....				1852, ...	1,000 = 28,320
“	“	“	“	1853, ...	18,000 = 509,400
“	“	“	“	1854, ...	41,098 = 1,162,213
“	“	“	“	1855, ...	74,000 = 2,094,960
“	“	“	“	1856, ...	69,179 = 2,188,118
The amount received by Cleveland and Mahoning R. R.,				“	8,175
[Cleveland Herald—R. R. Record, iv. p. 472.]					

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—SOUTHERN TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA AND THE WEST INDIES.

Governor WISE, of Virginia, among whose eccentricities it is to discuss all subjects with originality and ability, writes to the people of Norfolk, Virginia, in regard to the establishment of steamship lines to South America, as follows : Alas, however, there would be little response among us, though one from the dead should speak on matters of commercial enterprise !

"The great European trade has attracted all eyes so intently, that attention has been drawn from equally important enterprises which are perfectly practical, and actually inviting our industry and investment. A trade with Europe is all important, and I mean not to detract from the efforts made to develop and establish it. But time and immense acquisitions of capital, and a long education of merchants associated with foreign trade, and the most costly steam navigation, are all necessary to attain the far-off consummation of a direct trade with the ports of the Old World. And the question has always puzzled me whether we are not attempting "to put the cart before the horse" in transportation, by attempting to establish lines of mammoth steamers, before we have completed our works of internal improvement, and piled the pabulum of commerce on the quays of the Chesapeake for a trade with England on the continent of Europe. That trade has its channels, its connections abroad, its associations at home, its capital located, and its merchants educated. But there is another trade naturally and legitimately ours, and waiting only for a master merchant to mart all its immense materials, and to make us a city of foreign commerce larger in proportion than we have now capital to employ in its development. I mean the trade with South America, the West Indies, Brazil, Buenos Ayres, and Paraguay.

At the falls of James River, here at Richmond, the capital of this Commonwealth, we have mighty mills, said to be the largest in the world, grinding more than half a million of barrels of the finest flour per annum ; and that flour commands the very highest price of any in the world at Rio de Janeiro, and is the great item of all our exports to South America. That flour, grown on our soil, ground by our mills, pays us only a *terre-tenant* profit and a miller's toll. Until lately it gave us no ship-owner, and has built us no ships, made us no sailmakers and riggers, trained for us no ship-chandlers, give us no freights, no dunnage, nor foreign exchange, and has sent back to us no imports of coffee, and hides, and fruits, for wholesale distribution to the interior, and has fostered no interior trade for that distribution, and has consequently educated no merchants in the foreign trade, and brought us no capital of commerce, and built us no cities. Why not ? Why, heretofore our internal improvements have not been completed, and we could not have a distributing point even for our own great Valley of Virginia, and we have had no agents and factors abroad to send us importations upon the best terms, and consequently we have been mere retailers of the proceeds of our own produce, and no importers.

When Minister of the United States at the Court of Brazil for nearly four years, from the beginning of 1844 to the end of 1847, while Gallego and Haxall flour commanded twenty-four milreis per barrel, the Trieste, Chili, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, New-York, and Baltimore flour commanded twenty-two, twenty, and eighteen milreis on an average. The French bakers bought the Richmond flour as a priming for their bread, so superior was it in whiteness and gluten, and, under proper inspection, it continues to command the markets of South America. But the ships which carry that flour from Virginia to Rio are all built in Baltimore, New-York, or further north. There they are manned, rigged, and victualled. They come to City Point for our flour, and spend nothing among us while loading, for they come provided for the voyage. Their owners make the freight, the dunnage, and the exchange, and, above all, they bring back the return cargoes not to us, but to Baltimore or New-York, to be distributed, and the coffee comes through these ports to our people at retail prices.

until lately, I repeat, not a pound was imported into Virginia, and not a Virginia bottom was employed in this trade, and not a port or place of Virginia at a bag to the interior, but we were consumers at retail prices in the very city of Richmond which ground the flour that bought the coffee.

But now, by the Southwestern and Southside and Norfolk and Petersburg railroads, and by the Central, Norfolk and Richmond are connected with the east interior, with the interminable West at Memphis, and it will soon be with Cincinnati. All interior Virginia is opened, and the beautiful and fertile pastures and wheat lands of East Tennessee, heretofore unknown, will no longer get to market on the hoofs of cattle and swine. In future they will send wheat or flour, and mess pork and beef to Richmond, and Richmond can distribute to them their sugars, coffee, and groceries of all kinds, and all their supplies. Why cannot Norfolk fulfill her natural destiny, and be the great port of export and import for this point of distribution for these great mills, and for the places innumerable of the interior and the West to be supplied with East India and South American products? Is there not a concordance and amenity of interest between Richmond and Norfolk in this already established, and natural and legitimate foreign trade?

Richmond has already begun the enterprise, and has, I believe, five fine frigates importing the return cargoes for what her mills grind and send away. Norfolk is the natural port of commerce, and Richmond is the granary, and the mill-house, and the distributing point to the interior. That is the true harmony of the trade. Let us have it.

From memorials presented to the last Congress by John Gardner, long a Rio de Janeiro merchant, well known to me for shrewd intelligence, on whose statements you may rely for the statistics he presents, I extract some important facts. He was seeking subsidies for mail steamers to the West Indies, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic. He might well pray for mails to South America. England has mails, Belgium has mails, France has mails, and Brazil its mails carried by steamers from Rio to Europe, but the United States have none. Coffee may be falling and flour rising, and the European and United States merchant may start even in the race to get intelligence home. The letter to Trieste will go direct by steam, and the flour it sends for be half-way west, while the letter for Richmond has to go to Southampton, in England; sitting there, it finds England has no steam mail more direct than to Halifax, St. Thomas, and to Halifax our letters have to go to get to Richmond, and by the time they get here the prize is won by the Trieste trader in Rio! To remedy this interdiction of our trade in competition with Europeans in South America, Mr. Gardner presented his memorial to Congress. No one here took notice of it, though we were more deeply interested in it than we are in the great Collins line itself. But I am not urging a mail line—certainly not one starting from New-York for us—I am presenting to you data for the estimate of profits on a commercial line from Norfolk to Rio de Janeiro.

1st. We have no steam lines in connection with South America, though they could, as they have for Europe, vastly increase our commerce with the South.

2d. We have no steam line with South America, and European Powers having several, our commerce is seriously injured thereby—Europe's commerce and intercourse is enlarged at our expense.

3d. I would start a line at Norfolk, touch at St. Thomas, the great distributing point of the English and other West India mails; thence to Barbadoes; thence to Pernambuco, Bahia, and Rio de Janeiro. A smaller steamer here could connect with Montevideo and Buenos Ayres.

4th. The distance would be, from—

Norfolk to Cape Henry, East, 35 miles.

Cape Henry to St. Thomas, S. 38° E., 1,261 miles.

St. Thomas to Barbadoes, S. 44° E., 440 miles.

Barbadoes to Pernambuco, S. 49½° E., 1,050 miles.

Pernambuco to Bahia, S. 36° W., 365 miles.

Bahia to Cape Frio, S. 18° W., 630 miles.

Cape Frio to Rio de Janeiro, W., 75 miles.

Total distance, 4,766 miles, in 24 days, at 200 miles per day.

By actual experience the European steamers make, including stoppages and delay, about two hundred miles per day. Thus the distance to Rio from

Norfolk would take at least twenty-four days, and fifty days only would be required for a round trip to that port, and but little more to get returns from Buenos Ayres.

5th. Two large propellers, say of twelve hundred tons each, would be sufficient for the beginning of the trade, and four would soon be required.

6th. The exports of the United States to those countries have been much less than the imports. This is mainly the result of the greater facilities afforded trade with Europe by steamers. Our articles cannot compete with those of the English in the market of Brazil, from the dispatch and freshness in which the latter can be sent out by steamers.

The following statistics are from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury for the year ending 30th June, 1868 :

	Entered tons.	Cleared tons.
West Indies, &c., not including Cuba.....	340,047.....	327,180
Brazil.....	126,442.....	87,898
Argentine Republic.....	19,402.....	52,674
Total.....	485,891.....	466,752
	Exports value.	Imports tons.
West Indies, &c., not including Cuba....	\$15,647,275.....	\$17,215,653
Brazil.....	5,545,207.....	21,460,738
Argentine Republic.....	2,819,979.....	8,152,770
Total.....	\$23,512,461.....	\$41,829,156

The trade of Great Britain alone in tonnage and value surpassed that of these countries.

7th. Norfolk will soon be the central point of the Western railroads as it is now of the Southern. North and South Carolina and Georgia have a large West India trade, and Virginia and Maryland have the most extensive trade with Brazil of any sections of this country. The West and New-Orleans are also deeply interested in the Brazil trade. To all these points Norfolk would be the most accessible and nearest place of departure and arrival, and to the North it would be equally so.

8th. Steamers of 1,200 tons are proposed by Mr. Gardner at \$2 50 per mile, but 1,600 ton steamers at the rate of \$4 per mile for mail steamers. A commercial line would not require so much size and cost. But he thinks a mail subsidy is required much larger for Brazil than for Europe, because the distance is so great the steamers must start nearly loaded with coal, leaving little room for freight ; very little light or valuable freight or specie can be expected ; very few passengers can be counted on ; coal for the return voyage would cost in Rio about \$12 per ton, making the average cost for the voyage upward of \$9 per ton, or double the cost of coal on a European voyage. But this is an argument with Congress for a subsidy, for a passenger steamer, to carry mails. Why must the steamers start nearly loaded with coal when they have depots at St. Thomas, Barbadoes, Pernambuco, Bahia, and Rio ? Again, trade would be increased, and the correspondence would increase, and all go by this route from the United States to Rio, and the postage would pay without a subsidy. If a subsidy could be obtained it would be only an additional profit. Again, the balance of trade is so much against us now as to favor the European rival trade in exchange, and specie would be remitted necessarily to meet the balance of trade instead of paying the premium now paid for exchange. Passengers would vastly increase in numbers as soon as steam travel is substituted for sails. And a commercial steamer would not cost at the rate of a passenger and mail steamer.

The statistics of the Brazilian trade furnished by Chevalier de Aguiar, in Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, show that from 1833-'34 to 1855-'56, twelve years, the imports from the United States had *actually decreased* fourteen per cent., while those from England had increased seventy per cent., consisting chiefly of cotton goods. At the same time the exports to the United States had increased 180 per cent.—the great balances caused by this export being paid by bills of exchange on England, instead of increased exports, which exchange was

It is, in my opinion, no paradox to say, that the way most certain and speedy to get direct trade with Europe, and to be our own importers thence, is to bend all our energies to our trade with the West Indies and South America by a commercial steam connection, and to make the latter bring about the former. We have all the materials, and it remains to be seen whether we have the wit to find out the ways. One thing I must say, let us be ashamed to utter one murmur of sectional jealousy against Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York, or Boston, while we have so much capacity in ourselves, and yet, like the fool of Horace, stand waiting on the banks of the stream for the waters to pass by before we cross over. We have wood, iron, coal, tar, pitch, turpentine, cotton, and hemp, to build and rig and sail our ships. We have flour, pork, beef, tobacco, salt, and everything to export, and not a merchant to send it away and bring back its return cargoes. We have exports in abundance, and strangers have to send them away from us, and then bring back the returns to ports outside of our limits, and we are but the retail shop-keepers and consumers of importers in other States. This is not their oppression; it is our fault. We are not educated in foreign trade. Let me implore you to send some agents and factors abroad. Send some of your sons to Rio de Janeiro, and to ports every where promising to us a foreign trade. Teach some one the ways and means of carrying it on. If you can't bring the Great Eastern from Europe, do start a cock-boat to Rio de Janeiro."

Total exports for the year.....\$824,644,421

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

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This shows an excess of exports over imports of \$42,061,271, an amount just about equal to the exports of domestic specie. Included in the exports of domestic produce for the year were \$131,886,661 value in cotton. We annex a comparative summary of the imports for the last fourteen years:

Imports into the United States from Foreign Ports.

Year Ending June 30.	Dutiable.	Free Goods.	Specie and Bullion.	Total Imports.
1845.....	\$95,106,724	\$18,077,598	\$4,070,242	\$117,254,564
1846.....	96,924,058	20,990,007	3,777,732	121,691,797
1847.....	104,773,002	17,651,347	24,121,289	146,545,638
1848.....	132,282,325	16,356,879	6,360,224	154,998,928
1849.....	125,479,774	15,726,425	6,651,240	147,857,439
1850.....	155,427,936	18,081,590	4,628,792	178,138,318
1851.....	191,118,345	19,652,995	5,453,592	216,224,932
1852.....	183,252,508	24,187,890	5,505,044	212,945,442
1853.....	236,595,113	27,182,152	4,201,332	267,978,647
1854.....	271,276,560	26,327,637	6,958,184	304,562,381
1855.....	221,378,184	36,430,524	3,659,812	261,468,520
1856.....	257,684,236	52,748,074	4,207,632	314,639,942
1857.....	294,160,815	54,367,507	12,461,799	360,890,141
1858.....	202,293,875	61,044,779	19,274,496	282,613,150

This shows a falling off, in round numbers, of ninety-two millions in dutiable goods, and a gain in both free goods and specie. The increase in free goods is made up entirely of articles added to the free list by the tariff of 1857. The total imports are \$78,276,991 less than for the previous year; but in dutiable merchandise the total is less than for any previous year since 1852. We also annex a comparative summary of the exports for the same period:

Exports from the United States to Foreign Ports.

Year ending June 30.	Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Specie and Bullion.	Total Exports.
1845.....	\$98,455,330	\$7,584,781	\$8,606,495	\$114,646,606
1846.....	101,718,042	7,865,206	3,905,268	113,488,516
1847.....	150,574,844	6,166,754	1,907,024	158,648,622
1848.....	180,203,709	7,986,806	15,841,616	164,032,131
1849.....	181,710,061	8,641,091	5,404,648	145,755,820
1850.....	184,900,233	9,475,493	7,622,994	151,898,720
1851.....	178,620,138	10,295,121	29,472,752	218,388,011
1852.....	154,981,147	12,037,043	42,674,185	209,642,325
1853.....	189,869,182	13,096,213	27,485,875	230,452,250
1854.....	215,157,504	21,661,137	41,422,423	278,241,064
1855.....	192,751,135	26,158,368	56,247,343	275,156,846
1856.....	266,438,051	14,781,372	45,745,485	326,964,908
1857.....	278,906,713	14,917,047	69,186,922	362,960,682
1858.....	241,851,033	20,660,241	52,683,147	324,644,421

It will be seen that the falling off in the exports is much less than the decrease in imports, for while the latter have declined \$78,276,911, the exports have decreased only \$38,316,261. Of this decrease, only \$27,555,680 are in domestic produce, while the specie exports have fallen off \$16,503,775, and the shipments of foreign produce have increased.

3.—PORK TRADE OF THE WEST, 1858-9.

THE surplus hog products of the West may be valued in round numbers at \$35,000,000. About one fourth of this business is transacted at Cincinnati directly, and a considerable proportion besides is connected indirectly with the mercantile operations of this place. Cincinnati has, therefore, become the centre of the pork business. It is the great controlling market of the country. It is the meeting place for operators from all sections, East, West, North, and South, and also for European traders in the article. Strangers are already beginning to arrive, and within the next thirty days New-York, Boston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, South-Carolina, Virginia, the Western States, Canada, England, and Ireland, will be represented on 'change. The trade will, therefore, very soon be in the full current of activity.

The chief interest at this time relates to the prospects of the trade, and inasmuch as the only questions in doubt, in this connection, depend upon the extent of the crop, present inquiries are mainly directed to this point. Upon general principles, and without regard to existing circumstances, it would be reasonable to anticipate a supply greatly in excess of any previous season. Two things only are necessary ordinarily to secure a large crop of hogs, especially when they are found to exist two years in succession, viz.: remunerative prices and good supplies of corn. For several years past the former have been realized, and in regard to corn, it is to be remarked that the average for four years has not fallen much, if any, below a fair yield. Last year the crop, such as it was in quality, was a large one. This year it is short, slightly in some localities, largely in others; but taking the hog-raising States together, and including the old corn carried over from the crop of 1857, and we have in Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Tennessee, and Iowa, supplies equal to the wants of the country, and fully sufficient to warrant the belief that the present prices for pork will induce farmers to feed all the hogs that can be made ready for market this season.

The average price of hogs in this market for several years was as follows:

1849-50, per 100 lbs. net.....	\$2 91
1850-51, do do	4 00
1851-52, do do	4 70
1852-53, do do	6 81
1853-54, do do	4 44
1854-55, do do	4 45
1855-56, do do	6 04
1856-57, do do	6 28
1857-58, do do	5 16

It is thus seen that for eight years past hogs have commanded full prices. But notwithstanding eight years of full prices for hogs, and four or five years of fair corn crops on an average, we are entering upon a new season with hogs at \$5 75 per 100 pounds nett, and a prevailing opinion that crops will not much exceed, if it reaches, the figures reported for 1857-'58. High prices and short-crop views, however, at the opening of the season, are not to be taken as conclusive evidence of deficient supplies. It has not often, if ever, occurred in the history of the pork trade of this city that a deficiency of supplies was not figured up at the beginning of each season.

Hogs are the most productive animals we have, as they are also the most numerous of farm stock. There may be a very short crop this year, and yet very long one next. Give twelve months' notice to farmers, and they will furnish as many hogs as desired, provided you will pay well for them, and there is a good corn crop. Again: the actual number of hogs in those States which furnish the surplus for market is usually about ten millions. The surplus asked at the leading points, therefore, do not embrace more than one third of the actual number in the pork-packing States. From this it may be seen how easy it is for farmers, when extra inducements are offered in the shape of high prices, to increase the surplus, and they have rarely failed to do this in the business opened at tempting figures, as it has this year.

At many points the contracts already made exceed the total of last year's business at the same places. Wherever there is a pork trade there is a cash market. In addition, full prices prevail, and farmers are in a condition to appreciate and avail themselves of these advantages. They need money. Many of them are in debt. Wheat crops are short, and hogs are the most available things they have for sale. They will therefore be apt to sell as many hogs as they can fatten.

The views that we have thus presented lead us to anticipate an increase in the hog crop of 1858-'59 of not far from 20 per cent. This will be chiefly realized in Indiana, Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, and Tennessee. Ohio and Kentucky will probably hold their own, but no more. The corn that is now being fed to them is of superior quality, much better than that used last year, and the animals promise to come forward in good order—*Cincinnati Gazette*.

4.—NEW-ORLEANS SUGAR MARKET 1857-'58.

The following is extracted from the Annual Report of the New-Orleans Prices Current :

"The first arrival of *new crop* was on the 29th of September, consisting of five hhds. from the Parish of Iberville. This was more than one month earlier than the first receipt in the previous year, and 12 days earlier than in 1855. The five hhds. were sold at the fancy price of 11½c. $\text{\text{¢}}$ lb. Up to the close of October, about 900 hhds. were received, limited sales being made at 9½@10½c. for fair to prime, until the last week of the month, when prices gave way fully 6c. $\text{\text{¢}}$ lb., Fair dropping from 9½c. to 8½@8¾c. These last were the lowest rates of the year, the market soon rallying, and our quotations on the 30th of October were as follows :

Inferior.....	8 @ 3½
Common to Good Common.....	3½ @ 4½
Fair to Fully Fair.....	4½ @ 5½
Prime.....	5½ @ 6½
Choice and Centrifugal.....	6 @ 8

The extreme range for fair to Fully Fair, during the next two months, was 4½ @ 6½c., but it fell off in January to 4@5c. $\text{\text{¢}}$ lb. From that period until April, the market steadily improved, and in the latter month the rates were 6½@7c. for Fair to Fully Fair, but fell off ½c. in May. The tendency has since been upward, the range being 6½ @ 7½c., in June, 8½ @ 8¾ in July, and 9 @ 9½ in August. Our quotations at the close are as follows :

Inferior and Refining.....	5 @ 6
Common and Good Common.....	7 @ 8½
Fair to Fully Fair.....	9 @ 9½
Prime.....	9½ @ —
Choice.....	9½ @ 10
Centrifugal to Clarified.....	9 @ 11
Refined.....	11 @ 11½

The course of the market, throughout the season, is indicated by the following table, which exhibits the highest and lowest points in each month for Fair to Fully Fair sugar, on the Levee, and also the *average price* in each month for the same range of qualities :

1857-'58.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
September..... cents $\text{\text{¢}}$ lb.—	@ 12	— @ 9½	10½ @ 12
October.....	10½ @ 12	3½ @ 8	8½ @ 10½
November.....	6 @ 6½	4½ @ 5½	5½ @ 6½
December.....	5½ @ 5½	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5½
January.....	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 4½	4½ @ 4½
February.....	5 @ 5½	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5½
March.....	6½ @ 6½	5 @ 5½	5½ @ 6½
April.....	6½ @ 7	6½ @ 6½	6½ @ 6½
May.....	6½ @ 7	5½ @ 6½	6½ @ 6½
June.....	6½ @ 7½	6 @ 6½	6½ @ 7
July.....	8½ @ 8½	6½ @ 7½	7 @ 7½
August.....	9 @ 9½	9 @ 9½	9 @ 9½

The first transactions on plantation reported were about the middle of December, at 5½ @ 5½c. $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. In February about 4,000 hhds. were sold at 4, 4½, ½, and 5½c., in March 5,000 to 6,000 hhds., at 5½, 6, 6½, 6½, 7 and 7½c. $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. There have been but few transactions reported since, the principal ones being a crop of 150 hhds. in July, and one of 600 in August, both at 9c. $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. The average price of the entire crop, according to our calculations, has been 5½c., giving an aggregate product for 279,697 hhds. of 1100 lbs. each, of \$17,900,608, against 3,976 hhds., and \$8,137,860 last year. The receipts at the levee have been 22,783 hhds., and 6,020 bbls. and tierces, against 62,463 hhds., and 3,995 bbls. and tierces, last year.

The estimated stock on hand at the close of last season, was only 200 hhds., and this amount added to the crop—279,697—would make a supply of 279,897 hhds. The distribution of this supply, as nearly as can be ascertained, has been as follows: shipments to places out of the State, as shown by our tables, and including the exports from Attakapas, 73,885 hhds.; consumption of the city and neighborhood, 30,000 hogsheads; taken for refining in the city, and other parts of the State, including eastern bottoms, 8,000 hhds.; estimated quantity taken to fill up hhds. for shipment 18,000 hhds.; and stock on hand in the State estimated at 2,000 hhds., leaving as the quantity taken for the West, 153,112 hogsheads against 39,576 hogsheads last year, or an increase of 113,436. The quantity shipped to Atlantic ports is 73,885, against 1850 hogsheads last year, showing an increase of 72,035 hhds.

The imports of foreign sugar at this port since the 1st September, are 1102 hogsheads, and 16,864 boxes from Cuba.

According to a statement annually made up by the *New-York Shipping and Commercial List*, the total imports of foreign sugar into the United States, for the year ending Dec. 31, 1857, was 269,180 tons (equal to 502,469 hogsheads of 200 lbs. each), against 275,662 tons, or 514,569 hhds. in 1856; and the quantity of this description taken for consumption in 1857, was 241,765 tons, against 55,292 in 1856, or a decrease of 53-10 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. The total consumption of both foreign and domestic cane sugar, in 1857, was 280,765 tons, against 378,760 in 1856, or a decrease in the total consumption of 25½ $\frac{1}{2}$ c. These estimates include large imports of Melado in 1857, equal to about 70,000 hhds., or 23,400 tons sugar. If this should be discarded, the decrease in the consumption would appear much larger, being 81 45-100 $\frac{1}{2}$ c. Besides the above, it is estimated that there entered into the consumption about 10,800 tons of sugar made from molasses, and about 35,000 tons of maple sugar, which, with the consumption of California and Oregon, estimated at 6,000 tons, would give a grand total for the consumption of the United States, in the year 1857, of 382,065 tons, against 12,135 tons in 1856. This amount is equal to 619,188 hogsheads.

Comparative prices of Sugar on the Levee, on the first of each month for five years.

	1857-'58.	1856-'57.	1855-'56.	1854-'55.
	CENTS.	CENTS.	CENTS.	CENTS.
September.....	*— @ —	5½ @ 9½	5 @ 7½	2½ @ 4½
October....	9½ @ 12	8½ @ 10½	4 @ 8	3 @ 5½
November.....	3 @ 7½	8½ @ 10½	5½ @ 7½	3 @ 5½
December.....	2½ @ 6½	8½ @ 10½	4½ @ 7½	2½ @ 5
January.....	2½ @ 6	7½ @ 10½	5 @ 8	2½ @ 4½
February.....	2½ @ 6½	7½ @ 11½	5 @ 8	2½ @ 4½
March.....	2½ @ 6½	7 @ 11½	4½ @ 8½	3 @ 5
April.....	3 @ 8	7 @ 11½	4 @ 8½	2½ @ 5½
May.....	2½ @ 8½	7½ @ 12	4 @ 8½	4 @ 6
June.....	2½ @ 8	9½ @ 12	4½ @ 9	4 @ 6½
July.....	2½ @ 8½	9½ @ 12	5 @ 9½	4 @ 6½
August.....	4½ @ 9½	10½ @ 11	5½ @ 9½	3½ @ 6½

* No Louisiana Sugar.

5.—DIRECT FOREIGN IMPORTS, SUGAR, COFFEE, AND SALT, AT NEW-ORLEANS.

ARTICLES.	1857-'58.	1856-'57.	1855-'56.
Coffee—Cuba, &c.....bags	1,268	11	10,885
Coffee—Rio.....bags	280,655	440,908	885,982
Sugar—Cuba.....bx. and bbls.	16,864	29,867	81,665
Sugar—Cuba.....hhds.	1,102	21,894	6,689
Sugar—Brazil, &c.....bx. and bgs.	30	8,806	
Molasses—Cuba.....hhds and tes.	2,528	24,453*	122
Molasses—Cuba.....bbls.	4,128	29,531	1,683
Salt—Liverpool.....sacks	669,873	1,051,190	1,033,284
Salt—Turks' Island, &c.....bush.	168,557	592,777	735,282

6.—MOBILE—ITS PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE.

Says the *Advertiser*, in commenting upon the Commercial advances of Mobile :

Since our last Annual Review, the Mobile and Ohio Railroad has been opened for traffic to West Point, 84½ miles from Macon. Within the year 53 miles of track have been laid—25 miles northward from Jackson, Tenn., 24 miles southward from the Kentucky line, and 4 miles on the Columbus Branch—leaving a gap of only 18 miles between Jackson, Tenn., and Columbus, Ky., which will be laid by the middle of October. The business of the road is increasing, and we have the cheering announcement that the President of the Company has purchased iron enough to complete this important work. This road, together with the rivers, which have been navigable nearly all the year, afforded all reasonable facilities for bringing forward the crops as the market demanded.

Notwithstanding the commercial difficulties adverted to, encouraging progress has been made in our industrial and commercial enterprises. Several steamboats have been built, new manufactories have been erected, and a steamship line between this port and Galveston, Texas, has been successfully inaugurated. Within the year Messrs Thomas A. Murray & Co., at the "Marine Ways," opposite the city, have built three stanch boats—the "Tom Murray," a steam towboat for Pensacola (cost \$10,000), and the river boats "Rescue" (cost \$14,000), and "Senator" (cost \$45,000), and we are informed that negotiations are pending for new work. These boats are all built with Alabama pine, which has been found superior for steamboat hulls to any other kind of timber. The Mobile Dock and Mutual Insurance Company have a finely arranged building, covering a steam sawmill, planing machine, and all the adjuncts necessary for ship and steamboat building at cheap rates, of which they have, in previous years, given evidence. They have built two steamboats during the year—the Warrior, for the river trade, and the Crescent, for Point Clear. The Messrs. Menher, at their mill near the city, have sawed 2,000,000 feet of lumber, and 1,200,000 shingles during the year, and are preparing to build another large steamer. Our iron foundries appear to be doing a larger business in machinery than ever before. The increase in this department with the last five or six years is wonderful. Messrs. Skates & Co., and I. D. Spear & Co., are prepared to build boilers, engines (high and low pressure) of all sizes and power, machinery for steamboats and mills, etc., etc. Messrs. Spear & Co. built last year machinery for seventy-five circular sawmills, and the engine and boilers for the new bay steamer Crescent. We are pleased to be able to state that the enterprise of Messrs. Pomeroy & Marshall in erecting a tannery and a factory for the manufacture of russet brogans, is highly successful. Their business proves that such articles can be manufactured and sold here as cheaply as they can be purchased at the North.

The Southern Oil Company's works, located in the city, were formally inaugurated on Saturday, July 31st. The factory is a commodious building, con-

veniently arranged for the business for which it is designed. On the ground are four huge iron stills for melting the rosin, whence the vaporized rosin passes by means of pipes, through a tank of water into a large copper-lined cauldron, where it undergoes purification, after which it reaches the final reservoir for the perfected oil. The rosin separates in the still into three distinct and merchantable substances—oil, pitch, and naphtha. The capacity of these works is such, that 1,000 gallons of oil, 250 of naphtha, and 12 barrels of pitch, may be daily produced, requiring the consumption of 75 barrels of rosin. The labor of only five or six persons is required to manufacture this large product. The oil is now used on nine of our steamboats, and, according to certificates of the officers, has been pronounced the best in use. We have dwelt somewhat upon this topic, as, if this oil shall prove all that is claimed for it, the importance of the enterprise to this section of the country can hardly be overestimated.

The year just closed will be ever-memorable for the success of the most stupendous experiment of modern times—the connection of the Old World with the new by an electric cable. This great event was consummated on the 5th of August, and several messages to and from Europe have already passed over it, (convincing the most skeptical of its practicability.) What will be the precise effect of this rapid communication upon commerce and trade, remains to be disclosed. It can hardly be otherwise, however, than beneficial, although it will greatly change the method of business. Speculators will doubtless find it interfere materially with their occupation, but capital and legitimate business will have little to fear from it.

Real estate in this city appears to have suffered but little from the depression of business following the "crisis." Not much has changed hands, however, at private sale, but a good deal of valuable property has been sold at auction, bringing fair, and, in some instances, high prices. Considerable improvement is now going on in the way of building—several new stores and a number of dwellings, some of them quite imposing and costly, being in progress of erection. The relief experienced from the discontinuance of the two per cent. Railroad tax—now all paid up—makes this class of property more remunerative and desirable than it has been esteemed for several years.

7.—EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM MOBILE.

PORTS.	'57-58.	'56-57.	'55-56.	'54-55.	'53-54.
Liverpool.....	263,091	192,940	340,812	213,616	227,462
Hull.....					
Glasgow.....	952	3,059	5,183		3,768
Cowes, Cork, &c.....	1,000		5,695	1,682	
Total to Great Britain....	265,043	195,999	351,690	215,248	231,230
Havre.....	89,689	88,662	95,021	110,074	76,752
Bordeaux.....				1,016	
Marseilles.....		182	2,250		
Rouen, Nantz, &c.....					
Total to France.....	89,689	88,794	97,271	111,090	76,752
Amsterdam.....		1,470			
Rotterdam.....	1,358	6,447	955	2,900	2,960
Antwerp.....		2,297	8,892	2,539	6,087
Ghent.....					
Trieste.....	7,419	15,796	2,510	1,989	5,709
Hamburg and Bremen.....	6,047	1,225	10,779	2,818	8,894
Barcelona, &c.....	2,286		5,017	3,777	8,538
Mexico and Stockholm.....		145	7,881		268
St. Petersburg.....	10,909				
Other Ports.....	3,664	6,764	540		1,525
Total other Foreign Ports.	81,633	34,144	36,074	13,373	23,961

Exports of Cotton from Mobile—Continued.

PORTS.	'57-58.	'56-57.	'55-56.	'54-55.	'53-54.
New-York	14,852	28,736	28,507	31,654	35,419
Boston	26,159	48,782	64,628	26,958	43,198
Providence	12,222	22,245	17,672	15,875	23,406
Philadelphia	2,377	7,543	2,975	2,413	5,047
Baltimore	2,220	6,361	4,548	3,724	3,921
New-Orleans	67,451	46,040	73,707	32,087	64,806
Other Ports	3,151		3,585	1,800	2,871
Total Coastwise	128,432	154,687	195,622	113,511	178,668
Total Bales	515,447	473,807	680,557	453,822	515,631
RECAPITULATION.					
Great Britain	265,643	195,999	351,690	215,248	231,230
France	89,689	88,794	97,271	111,090	76,752
Other Foreign Ports	31,683	34,144	36,074	13,973	28,981
Total Foreign	387,015	318,937	485,035	340,311	336,963
United States	128,432	154,687	195,622	113,511	178,668
Total	515,447	473,624	680,657	453,822	515,631

8.—TRADE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

THE "*Lynchburg Virginian*" speculates as follows over a copy of the last annual commercial report of the city of Cincinnati, prepared by William Smith, Esq., the intelligent and active Superintendent of the Merchants' Exchange, of that city :

From this pamphlet we get a complete history of the commerce of that city, for the past year, as well as tabular comparative statements of the business of several years preceding. It shows that, notwithstanding the financial crisis of last year, Cincinnati has not only held her own, but is steadily increasing her trade, and growing in commercial importance.

There is no city in the Union from which we should have expected so little of growth, as Cincinnati—not that she has not enterprise, capital, and everything else necessary to sustain the commerce of a large city—but because of her infelicity in respect of geographical position. At one time, not very long ago either, Cincinnati was the border city of the West. All the trade from West to East passed through her gates. But, of late years, St. Louis and Chicago have advanced with such rapid strides as now to be reckoned cities of the first commercial importance. Of course, the area of country, the trade of which was tributary to Cincinnati, has been circumscribed, and a portion of the trade diverted into other channels. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the "Queen City of the West," as its inhabitants delight to call it, still holds a front rank in the commercial cities of the continent.

The reason of this is found in the astonishing increase in the productions and trade of the Mississippi Valley—by which we mean not only the valley of that river itself, but of all its tributaries. The Illinois, the Ohio, the Missouri, the Red, and the other streams which enter into the grand volume of water which finds its *embouchure* at the delta of the Mississippi, all float upon their bosoms, with each succeeding year, an increase of agricultural productions. Moreover, emigration is steadily pushing itself further toward the setting sun every year—and the western tributaries of the great river begin to throng with population almost to their very sources in the gorges of the Rocky Mountains. So

that, though Chicago and St. Louis, and St. Paul's and Memphis, are diverting from Cincinnati much of the trade of the Mississippi Valley, she still maintains her commercial position. And she will continue to maintain it, and advance upon it.

Among other items of interest in the pamphlet before us, is a table showing the destination of the exports of Cincinnati for the past year—specifying how much was shipped down the river, how much up, how much by railroad, and how much by canal. And it is this statement that more immediately concerns us of Virginia. *Every ton of export that Cincinnati sends out, that is designed for foreign shipment, or for the Atlantic cities, ought to be brought to the seacoast, right through the heart of Virginia!*

Cincinnati exported, last year, articles of merchandise to the value of fifty-five millions of dollars. It is not too much to say that at least three fourths of this was intended for the Atlantic coast, and for foreign exportation. *If the great central water line of Virginia were completed to the Ohio river, it would secure the transportation of all this merchandise to the Atlantic coast, and Norfolk would be the grand distributing depot, sending it in all directions, wherever destined!*

As it is, some of it has to be sent down the river to New-Orleans, and there reshipped. But the climate of New-Orleans, for a portion of the year, renders it unsafe to send there two of Cincinnati's leading articles of export, flour and pork. Some of this tonnage goes by canal to the lakes, and after encountering the dangerous navigation of Lake Erie, goes down by canal again from Buffalo to New-York city. But this route possesses an equal disadvantage with the Southern route—for it is a frozen up six months in the year. The only route free from the ice of the North, and the hot sun of the South—the shortest route—the cheapest route—the best route in every conceivable respect, is the central route through the heart of Virginia to Norfolk, which only awaits completion to Kanawha river, to become *the great commercial artery of the continent!*

We have considered this matter with reference to the trade of Cincinnati alone. But when we reflect that the whole Mississippi Valley, even to the western limits of Kansas and Nebraska, would pour out its immense productions through the same avenue, if it were completed, it does seem, indeed, an act of criminal supineness and negligence on the part of Virginia to let it remain unfinished. The people, in some of the counties, are already moving with reference to the election of members to the next Legislature. Let no man be chosen who is not a pledged friend of the completion of the water line to the Ohio.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE COTTON POWER.

At a recent meeting of the Cotton Planters' Association, held in Macon, Georgia, an interesting report was read upon this subject, prepared by a committee consisting of John H. Rogers, Messrs. Davis, Hillman, Rumph and Belvin. The committee well represent the commercial value of the staple. To estimate the influence of cotton upon the commerce of the world, we must remember, that imports are always equal to exports. The estimate of Mr. Marcy, while Secretary of State, in his report in obedience to a resolution of the House of Representatives, was, that three fourths of the cotton of the world was produced in the United States. From the same report it is seen that the value of the cotton of the United States is, in round numbers, \$100,000,000. Add to this \$33,000,000 as the amount produced in the other cotton-growing countries in the world, and we have \$133,000,000 worth as the average production of the world. Now suppose that \$33,000,000 worth be retained, for the purpose of home manufacture—this is about the amount, from the best data before us—this will leave \$100,000,000 to be exported. But imports are always equal to exports, so that the country shipping the \$100,000,000 worth of cotton must

receive in return \$100,000,000 worth of other articles. Here, then, is \$200,000,000 given to commerce. But the manufacturing countries receive this cotton, turn it into cloth, thereby increasing its value, say six times (which, however, is below the true increase.) All of this cloth is not needed for home consumption. By again referring to statistical accounts we find that about one sixth of the cotton imported into the manufacturing countries, is re-exported in the shape of the manufactured article. This, then, gives \$100,000,000 more of exports. This must have in return the same amount of imports. Here, then, is \$200,000,000 more, which added to the other \$200,000,000—the amount of the first exportation and importation combined—gives in round numbers \$400,000,000 to commerce yearly. We might trace this operation almost to infinity, but this is far enough for the object in view. Let it not be forgotten that this is the amount given yearly to commerce by cotton.

But the \$400,000,000 worth of commerce cannot be carried on without the means of transportation. Who then can calculate the vast amount that must be expended in making facilities for the transportation of \$400,000,000 worth of produce—produce which finds its way to the remotest parts of the civilized world. The mind is almost overwhelmed in the vain attempt. This, then, may be called another muscle in the giant arm of the "Cotton Power."

2.—INDIA COTTON COMPETITION STILL A FAILURE.

NEARLY every year the British Parliament collects voluminous testimony upon the subject of its India possessions, etc. A portion of it for the past year relative to cotton has been examined by the New-York Times, which says, (referring to the witnesses):

Mr. Landon considers that Indian cotton can never enter into successful competition with American so long as the quality continues so inferior, however much its production may be stimulated; but he says that it has been raised in value considerably by the greater care taken with it during the last ten years. So much has appeared lately in papers printed by the House of Commons with reference to the ability of India to compete with the United States in supplying Great Britain with cotton, that it is interesting to refer on this point to the evidence of Major Wingate. In a report, submitted to the Bombay Government in 1852, he estimated the waste lands of Khandeish at five million acres, consisting for the most part of soils suitable for the production of cotton, oil, seeds, and other exportable products; and this statement appears to be the basis upon which a member of the committee grounded his opinion that Khandeish is capable of producing more cotton than is grown in the United States. If the whole of the waste lands of that province are capable of producing cotton, which is not likely, and cotton were grown on it once in three years, which is the ordinary rotation, we should have 1,666,666 acres of cotton annually; and estimating the crop at 100 lb. of cleaned cotton per acre, which is Mr. Chapin's estimate for the cotton lands of Guzerat and Khandeish, and is also the estimate for India generally given in statistical papers relating to India, published by the East India Company in 1853, we have a total annual produce for these waste lands of 166,666,600 lb., or about one eighth of the cotton crop of the United States. Major Wingate says: "I think it is quite a mistake to suppose that India could, under any circumstances, supply an amount of cotton sufficient to render England independent of America. I am disposed to think, however, that a large increase of production is devisable from Khandeish, and also from other parts of India, by means of irrigation, if the price of the staple should rise sufficiently to make irrigation available; at present my belief is, that the low price of cotton prevents irrigation being resorted to."

With regard to the increased cultivation of New-Orleans cotton in India, Major Wingate gave the committee a return showing that in 1856-57 there were 112,667 acres planted with it in the southern Mahratta country (the collectorates of Dharwar and Belgaum), though the first plantation was made only in 1845, when two thousand acres were planted. The American saw-gin is coming rapidly into operation in those districts, in consequence of the impossibility of extending the culture of cotton without improvements in the mode of

leaning it. The prices of cotton rose so high shortly after its introduction, as to make it a highly profitable cultivation, if they could only obtain the means of cleaning it; the saw-gin gave them the means, and they adopted it. Mr. Andon, though he does not anticipate that India will ever compete successfully with America in the production of cotton, is of opinion that the supply will be greatly increased when the railways now in course of construction are completed. "I believe," he says, "that when railways penetrate into the interior in any direction, it will be the means of introducing a much greater quantity of European manufactures, and of bringing to the sea-board a vast amount of exportable produce which is now utterly unavailable. If cotton has not been more extensively cultivated, it has arisen from the circumstance that other crops have been found more profitable; but, at the same time, owing to the want of the means of cheap and speedy transportation from the place of growth to the place of exportation. When railroads penetrate these districts, there will probably be a great increase, as the cost of transport will be so much reduced as to enable supplies to be contributed by districts which are now beyond reach of the market." Another witness, Mr. J. O'B. Saunders, says that, in the country between Delhi and Agra, spoken of by Sir J. Lawrence as producing our hundred pounds of clean cotton, the calculation has very much fallen off, a consequence of the opening of the trade and the competition of American cotton in the markets of Asia.

3.—PRODUCTION OF WINES AT THE SOUTH.

In a recent number of the *Galveston News*, appeared an excellent article, urging upon the people of Texas the culture of the grape, and exhibiting the great advantages enjoyed by that State for the prosecution of this branch of industry. The writer says:

In the meantime, we think our readers will be much interested in learning what success has attended the cultivation of the grape in some of the Western States, where the business has been pursued for the last twenty or thirty years, and what have been the results from the few experiments made in the South; and we think there are few who will not be surprised to learn what large profits have been realized in the West, and how much larger still those profits are in the South. The great importance of this branch of husbandry, and its almost certain success in Texas, when properly introduced, has determined us to obtain the most accurate and reliable information in regard to it, for the future numbers of our Almanac. Our purpose is now simply to awaken public attention to this subject, with the hope that our Texas readers will furnish us what information they can, as regards any experiments that may be made in different parts of our State.

Prof. G. C. Swallow, State Geologist of Missouri, has delivered an able address on this subject, before the American Scientific Association of Baltimore, from which the following extract is taken, on

WINE-MAKING IN MISSOURI AND OHIO.

Notwithstanding the many difficulties our vine-dressers have had to contend with, and notwithstanding some of their vineyards are not—to say the least—in very favorable localities in the State, their success has been very flattering.

The vineyards of Boonville have yielded, the present season, about 6,000 gallons, worth \$12,000. Five acres gave a clear profit of \$2,000, or \$400 per acre. Mr. Haas made 1,550 gallons from three acres.

The vintage of Hermann was about 100,000 gallons from less than 200 acres. At \$1 per gallon, which is much less than the value, it will give a profit of at least \$400 per acre, or of \$80,000 on the 200 acres in cultivation.

One small vineyard at Hamburg—Mr. Joseph Stoby's—yielded over 1,000 gallons per acre.

The entire cost of vineyards, preparing the soil, setting and training the vines till they come into bearing, varies from \$200 to \$300 per acre.

Annual cost of cultivation after.....	\$50 to \$60 per acre.
Ten per cent. on first cost.....	20 to 30 "
Total expense for each year.....	70 to 90 "

So that an income of \$100 per annum for each acre, is sufficient to pay the interest and the expense of cultivation.

Judging from the statistics before me, I would suppose all our vineyards have yielded an average of at least 250 gallons per acre since 1849, which, at an average price per gallon of \$1 60, would give an annual income of \$400, and a yearly profit of \$300 per acre. So that the vine-dresser, even in the poorest seasons, can scarcely fail of a handsome profit, while in good years, his gains will far surpass those derived from any other department of husbandry. But the profits of our most successful cultivators have been much greater. Mr. Preschel, of Hermann, is said to have made over 400 gallons per acre, for the last ten years, and an annual profit of more than \$500 for each acre.

Such are the favorable results legitimately derived from the experience of our vine-dressers in their early efforts in a new country, with a soil and climate unknown to the cultivators of the grape.

All must admit that they are most satisfactory. Even if our climate does not become more dry, if no more improvements are made in the modes of culture, and if no more favorable localities are obtained, grape culture must increase very rapidly, and become an important element in our agricultural and commercial interests.

But, says the *Mobile Advertiser*, "the most extensive vineyards, as is well known, are in the Ohio Valley. It is estimated that there are over 4000 acres in vineyard culture in the valley, about half of which is in the vicinity of Cincinnati. Of the yield there, Mr. Buchanan, one of the most eminent wine-growers of Ohio, says: '700 to 800 gallons to the acre is a very large crop,' and '300 gallons is considered a good average yield.' Mr. Longworth says: 'A fair average crop for a series of years is found to be 260 to 300 gallons to the acre, in the Ohio Valley. The cost of producing this crop will not exceed fifty or sixty dollars per acre, and less, with proper economy.' 'It is known,' says another writer, 'that 100 gallons to the acre will more than pay expenses. Every acre that is planted in the approved vines is valued at \$1,000.'

"To show what wine-making has done for at least one man, we copy the following extract from a letter which we find in a late number of the *Southern Cultivator*:

"Mr. N. Longworth, of Cincinnati, who has not only built a wide reputation, but a mammoth estate, by his vineyards, has done it mostly by the Catawba grape. Thirty years of his life have been devoted to the culture of the grape, and for fifteen years he tried the foreign varieties, on which he failed, as the rest did who tried them, and sunk one hundred and twenty thousand dollars. He then turned his attention to the native grapes of the country, and in the space of sixteen years, has not only retrieved his losses, but has amassed a fortune of seven or eight millions dollars.'"

So much for wine-making in the cold climates of Missouri and Ohio.

Next comes the subject of

WINE-MAKING IN THE SOUTH.

From the foregoing it is assumed that the average product of the West is 300 gallons to the acre, worth \$400, of which \$300 per acre are the net profits—as \$100 is more than enough to cover all expenses. Almost any reasonable man should be satisfied with such a profit as this. But when the results of the South are examined, it will be seen that the above profits fall far below what may be realized, and what have been realized, in the South, even on our poorest lands, for it is said that "our thin pine lands, our barren sand-hills, where neither corn nor cotton will grow, are the very best lands for the culture of the grape." We copy from the *Mobile Advertiser*:

"One of the most successful vine-growers in the South, is Mr. Charles Axt, of Geo. Born in Germany, on the Rhine, he has been familiar with grape-growing and wine-making from his boyhood. Some ten years ago he came to Georgia, and there engaged in his favorite pursuit. Before doing so, however, he spent much time in travelling about the country, examining the growth of the vine, and studying its peculiarities and the nature of the climate. He says he was first impressed with the character of the climate, which struck him at once as the finest that he had ever known for grape-culture and wine-making. And he continues:

"The more I extended my observations, the more convinced was I, that vine-culture would be the most profitable rural occupation in the South, if we could only discover the mode of culture and trimming best adapted to the climate. I instituted a series of experiments, running through three years, at the end of which time I felt sure that I had discovered the proper and only plan that could insure perfect success in the Southern States. This plan I shall consider a *model* at least, until some person discovers a better. My vineyards are not raised like those of either Ohio, the Rhine, or France; neither are they like those of Italy or Spain. My system of *vine-culture for the South* is adapted to the climate. It is my own, and differs in many respects from all others."

Mr. Axt is now settled near Crawfordsville, Ga., where he has a large vineyard and is making excellent wine. His unparalleled success has been the means of awakening a great interest in the pursuit to which he is devoted throughout the South, but more particularly in Georgia, where the business has been greatly extended during the last two or three years.

With this introduction, we ask attention to the following extract from a communication of Mr. Axt, which we find in the Southern Cultivator, of July, 1856:

ADVANTAGE IN VINE CULTURE POSSESSED BY THE SOUTH OVER ALL OTHER COUNTRIES.

The South possesses great and decided advantages in grape growing, over either Europe or the Western States. In the latter countries the grape is very fastidious in its choice of soil and exposure—thriving only upon warm, porous, deeply trenched and well-trained hillsides, facing the sun. In these countries, the first cost of land suitable for the grape is often from \$100 to \$400 per acre. In the South, where the grape flourishes on almost any soil or exposure, land can be bought from \$3 to \$10 per acre. In Europe and at the West, owing to the defects of climate and cold nature of the soil, the *preparation* of land for vineyards (such as trenching, terracing, walling, &c.), costs from \$50 to \$200 per acre; while in the more genial climate of the South, by the use of the subsoil and deep-turning plow, followed by the spade or shovel, we can prepare lands for vineyards at a cost of \$40 per acre, or even less.

EARLY BEARING AND MATURITY, AT THE SOUTH.

At the West (in Ohio and elsewhere), the vines only begin to bear a few grapes the *third* year; and, if well managed, from the *sixth* year onward, will average from 300 to 400 gallons of wine per acre. In the South, we can easily get *one thousand* (1000) gallons of wine per acre the *third* year after planting the cuttings; and, under favorable circumstances, from the fifth year onward, each acre will average from 2,000 to 2,500 gallons of pure unadulterated wines. In Ohio one good vine-dresser can attend to *five* acres; while in the South, from the increased length of the season and additional *time* to do the work, the same hand can easily manage *ten* acres—both, of course, needing much additional help at the gathering time and vintage.

SUPERIOR CLIMATE OF THE SOUTH.

Ohio and other Western States are liable to many disasters from the fickleness and variableness of the weather; it being often too wet, too cold, too damp, &c., to say nothing of various other mishaps, causing a loss nearly every year of *half the crop*. In fact, a fine, warm, sunny summer is *indispensably necessary*, at the West, to make a good crop of grapes, and a finely flavored wine. For instance, the year 1853 produced a very superior crop, and the vintage of that season is still deservedly esteemed; but, neither at the West nor in Europe can they depend on such a season more than once in ten years. In the unfavorable years, the wine is generally too rough and sour to drink in its *natural* state, and it is, therefore, necessary to add sugar to produce what is known as champagne or "sparkling wine." This popular drink is very pleasant, palatable and not particularly injurious; but in point of healthfulness, it does not rank with the perfectly pure "still wines" before alluded to. We, of the South, are exempt from all climate disasters—the only contingency being a frost in May, or a hail storm during the period of fruiting. The summer weather of the South is *always favorable* to the grape, and we are, therefore, able to make, every year, a full, heavy crop, allowing the bunches to hang on the vines until they are full.

matured—an indispensable requisite to the making of good wine. At the West, the vintner is often forced to pick the grapes before they are fully ripe, owing to decay commencing. By allowing our grapes to attain full perfection on the vine, we can produce a wine, if "made" into a sparkling champagne, will be mild, fruity, entirely free from roughness, and altogether unrivalled by any in the world.

GENERAL PROPOSITIONS.

From the facts above stated, any persons acquainted, by travel and observation, with the different climates and modes of grape culture in this and foreign countries, will readily admit that if the South, with her cheap land and slave labor—her *unrivalled climate*, good soils, wealth, &c. &c.—will only enter upon and prosecute vigorously the culture of the grape and wine making, she will, in thirty or forty years hence, control the wine markets of the world, as she now does the cotton market; and that, too, without any serious detriment to the production of the latter—for the grape has been and can be easily and successfully grown upon our exhausted cotton fields, and old waste lands, by proper preparation at first, and a slight annual manuring afterward. Indeed, we can afford to make wine in the South at fifty cents per gallon, and then realize more money than from almost any other crop. In Ohio, however, owing to the *uncertainty* of the crop, and the comparatively *small yield*, such a price would not be sufficiently remunerative to hold out inducements for men of enterprise to engage in the business.

4.—THE STEAM-PLOW EXPERIMENT.

"It draws six plows, cutting a foot each, attached in a frame, and so regulated by spiral springs that they yield to any extraordinary obstruction. As there was no stubble field near, it was concluded to make trial on the unbroken prairie. This was now baked so hard by drought, that the prairie breaking plows would not run in it, and the trial of sod-plows was abandoned in consequence. Notwithstanding this fact, the inventor was so confident of success that he gave the order to put the plows to work in this almost impervious soil. After a little delay in regulating to this brick-like surface, the engine moved forward, when six furrows turned side by side, in the most workmanlike manner. The excitement of the crowd was beyond control, and their shouts and wild huzzas echoed far over the prairie, as there, beneath the smiling Autumn sun, lay the first furrow turned by steam on the broad prairies of the mighty West.

"The goal was won. Steam had conquered the face of nature, and the steam-plow had become a fact; it was working over the rich, rolling prairies of 'Egypt,' and turning up its wealth of nutritious elements for the growth of the cereal and pomonal products—self-moving, and containing a power unequalled to turn up the lower strata of soil, so rich in potash, in phosphates, in silica, and other essential elements of vegetable growth. The long line of matchless furrows parted the crowd, and lay between the moving masses like a line of silver wove in the gray surface of the prairie. Amid the excitement the inventor remained calm; it was enough for him to hear the glad shouts of victory which rent the air; for this he had toiled; for this his hands had become hardened, and his face made swarthy over the glowing iron out of which he forged the muscles of his iron steed of the prairies.

"Mr. Fawkes and others were called out by the crowd, and made brief speeches. Mr. Coleman, a member of the Board, spoke of the success of the steam-plow witnessed, as making a new era in the world's progress, and declared that the great enterprise of Fawkes may be placed side by side with the steam-engines, the steamboat, the locomotive, the cotton-gin, and the telegraph." After the speaking, *The Press* says:

"The engine again moved forward, when the plows turned up the *loose mud drift* of Egypt, laying six furrows side-by-side with the most perfect ease, and in the most workman-like manner. The consumption of fuel and water was very moderate. That the engine is a complete success there can be no doubt, and all that is now wanting is to demonstrate that, taking the whole expense into consideration, it is cheaper than horse-power. If this is answered in the affirmative, it will produce the *greatest revolution* in agricultural progress that we have yet seen; it will take another wrinkle from the brow of labor, and give to the toiling million lighter tasks to perform."

5.—MANAGEMENT OF VICIOUS HORSES.

THE following is said to be derived from the experiences and teachings of the celebrated horse-tamer, Mr. Rarey :

HOW TO SUBDUCE A KICKING HORSE.—A kicking horse is the worst kind of a horse to undertake to subdue, and more dreaded by man than any other ; indeed it would not be too much to say that they are more dreaded than all the other bad and vicious horses put together. You often hear the expression, even from horse-jockeys themselves, "I don't care what he does, so he doesn't kick." Now, a kicking horse can be broken from kicking in harness, and effectually broken, too, though it will require some time to manage him safely ; but perseverance and patience by this rule will do it effectually. When you go to harness a horse that you know nothing about, if you want to find out whether he is a kicking horse or not, you can ascertain that fact by stroking him on the flank where the hair lies upward, which you can discover easily on any horse ; just stroke him down with the ends of your fingers, and if he does not twitch his tail, and shake his head, and lay back his ears, or some of these, you need not fear his kicking ; if he does any or all of these, set him down for a kicking horse, and watch him closely.

When you harness a kicking horse, have a strap about three feet long, with buckle on one end ; have several holes punched in the strap ; wrap it once round his leg just above the hoof ; lift up his foot touching his body ; put the strap around the arm of his leg and buckle it ; then you can go behind him, and pull back on the traces ; you must not fear his kicking while his foot is up, or it is impossible for him to do it. Practice him in this way awhile, and he will soon learn to walk on three legs. You should not hitch him up until you have practiced him with his leg up two or three times, pulling on the traces, and walking him along. After you have practiced him a few times in this way, take up his foot as directed ; hitch him to something, and cause him to pull it a short distance ; then take him out ; caress him every time you work with him.

You will find it more convenient to fasten up his left fore foot, because this is the side you are on. After you have had him hitched up once or twice, you should get a long strap, put it around his foot as before directed (above the hoof, and below the pastern joint) ; put it through a ring in your harness ; take hold of it in your hand ; hitch him up gently, and if he makes a motion to kick, you can pull up his foot and prevent it. You should use this strap until you have him broken from kicking, which will not take long. You should hitch a kicking horse by himself ; you can manage him better in this way than to hitch him by the side of another horse.

HOW TO BREAK A HORSE FROM SCARING.—It is an established rule in philosophy, that there is not an effect without a cause, and if so, there must be some cause for the scaring of a horse. The horse scares either from imagination or from pain. Now, it is a law of his nature, that if you convince him that any object will not hurt him, there is no danger of his scaring at it, no matter how frightful it may be in appearance. To exemplify this, take a horse that is very easily scared at an umbrella ; take that horse into a tight stable where you can have his attention, take him by the bridle, and hold your umbrella in your hand ; when he first looks at it he will be afraid of it, and if he could he would soon be out of its reach ; but hold it in your hand, let him look at it, and feel it with his nose a few minutes, and then you can open and shut it as you please, occasionally letting him feel it with his nose, and soon he will care nothing about it.

In the same manner you can break any horse from scaring at things that may look frightful to him, logs, stumps by the roadside, or anything that you may wish to carry on him. If you wish to make a trial of this theory, just take a horse into the stable, and let him examine the frightful object a few minutes after his mode of examining things, and you will be perfectly satisfied. We have tried horses that would not suffer you to take an umbrella on them shut, and in fifteen minutes could open and shut it at pleasure, and they will pay no attention to it. There is something peculiar in the horse (though it is because he has not the faculty of reasoning). You can take an object that he is afraid

of, take it only on one side, let him examine it on that side only: do not let the other eye see it; he will be broken on one side, and as soon as the other eye beholds it, will be afraid until he looks at it, and touches it with his nose; then he will be broken on both sides.

HOW TO TEACH A HORSE TO FOLLOW YOU.—Take him into a large stable or shed, take hold of the bridle or halter with your left hand, have a long switch or whip in your right; after caressing him a little, put your right hand over his shoulder, with the whip extending back, so that you can touch him up with the whip applied gently around his hind legs. Start up a little, give him a gentle tap with the whip, walking him around the stable, saying to him, "*Come along, boy,*" or call him by his name, taking him around the stable a few times, holding him by the bridle. After you have taken him around in this way a few times, you can let go of his bridle, saying, "*Come along, boy,*" and if he stops tap him up with the whip gently, and in a short time he will learn that you want him to follow you; then gradually get before him, have him to follow you around the stable in this way a few minutes, then he will understand what you want him to do.

After you have taught him to follow in the stable, take him into the stable lot, learn him to follow you in that a few minutes; then you can take him into the public road or street, and he will follow you there, and in a short time he will follow you wherever you want him to. You should often pat him, and caress him, and give him to understand you do not intend to hurt him, and he will soon like to follow you. Men often get their horses afraid of them, and keep them so, and it is their nature to keep out of danger when they apprehend it, after the manner of arriving at conclusions. The way horses arrive at conclusions, is generally from experience.

HOW TO TEACH A HORSE TO STAND WITHOUT HITCHING.—After you have taught your horse to follow you, stand him in the centre of the stable, begin at his head to gentle him, gradually working backward. If he moves, give him a gentle cut with the whip, and put him back in the same spot from which he started. If he stands, caress him as before, and continue gentling him in this way until you can get around him without making him move. Keep walking around him, increasing your pace, and only touch him occasionally. Every time he moves put him back in the same place; go still farther from him, if he move give him a cut with your whip, place him back in the same place. If he stands, go to him frequently and caress him. Do not let him stand too long, but make him follow you around in the stable. Then stand him in another place, and proceed as before. After you have him so that he will stand in the stable, take him out in the lot, and place him there, and in a short time you can place him anywhere without hitching. You should not practice him longer than half an hour at a time.

ON BALKING.—If you have balky horses, it is your fault, and not the horses'; for if they do not pull true, there is some cause for it, and if you will remove the cause, the effect will cease.

When your horse balks, he is excited, and does not know what you want him to do. When he gets a little excited, stop him five or ten minutes; let him become calm; go to the balky horse, pat him, and speak gently to him, and as soon as he is over his excitement, he will, nine cases out of ten, pull at the word; whipping and slashing and swearing, only make the matter worse. After you have soothed him awhile, and his excitement has cooled down, take him by the bits; turn him each way as far as you can; pull out the tongue; soothe him a little; unrein him, then step before the balky horse, and let the other start first; then you can take him anywhere you wish. A balky horse is always high-spirited, and starts quick; has his pull out before the other starts, by standing before him the other starts too. By close application of this rule, you can make any balky horse pull.

If a horse has been badly spoiled, you should hitch him to the empty wagon, and pull it around awhile on level ground; then put on a little load, and increase it gradually, caressing as before, and in a short time you will have a good horse that will work without troubling you.

6.—THE COTTON CROP OF 1857-8.

THE statement of the Cotton Crop, which appeared in our November No., page 573, was erroneous so far as it related to the Sea Islands, which also affected the general aggregate. The true statement of the crop, as given by the Charleston Courier, we annex.

Total Crop of the United States.....	Bales..	3,117,496
Add—		
Stock on hand at the commencement of the year, Sept. 1, 1857—In Southern ports.....	23,629	
In Northern ports.....	25,146	
		48,776
Takes a supply of.....		3,166,271
Deduct therefrom—		
The Exports to Foreign ports.....	2,589,602	
Less Foreign included.....	800	
	2,588,802	
Stocks on hand Sept. 1, 1858—		
In Southern ports.....	57,982	
In Northern ports.....	46,322	
	103,304	
Burnt at New-York.....	41	
		2,692,147
Bales for home use.....	Bales..	474,124

Quantity consumed by and in the hands of Manufacturers north of Virginia.

1857-8.....Bales, 474,124	1854-5.....Bales, 598,292
1856-7.....702,189	1853-4.....610,571
1855-6.....658,512	1852-3.....671,009

Comparative Statement of Growth.

Crop of	Bales.	Crop of	Bales.
1857-8.....	3,117,496	1853-4.....	2,929,139
1856-7.....	2,944,805	1852-3.....	2,260,241
1855-6.....	3,524,242	1851-2.....	3,007,586
1854-5.....	2,855,729	1850-1.....	2,353,805

The Crop of Sea Island Cotton for the past year (included in the general statement) was as follows: Florida, 18,154; Georgia, 7,551; and S. Carolina, 4,861. Total, 40,566 bales; against 43,314 in 1856-7; 44,512 in 1855-6; 0,841 in 1854-5; and 39,686 bales in 1853-4.

7.—BRILLIANT PROSPECT FOR COTTON PLANTERS.

THE intelligent commercial editor of the United States Economist predicts for cotton the most gratifying future:

"The course of events for the last two or three years had pushed the consumption of cotton so far ahead of the production that the prices had risen to 18c., notwithstanding that the high prices of food in Europe and the state of affairs in Asia were adverse to a large consumption of cotton. The panic has greatly curtailed the use of cotton, but the prospect now is of a combination of all the elements of a large consumption. Asia taking great quantities this year, and with a crop which is now estimated at 3,500,000 bales, or 400,000 bales more than last year, the excess in receipts over last year being already 240,000. If cotton has maintained its value in the last year, with an increased crop of 100,000 bales, and a decrease of 500,000 bales in consumption, it is but reasonable to assume that with a renewal of the consumption, under the favorable operation of cheap food, cheap money, cheap materials, cheap labor and larger markets, that the prices of 1857 will be reached, say 18c. for middling, or that the mark *en anticipatée*—20c. for fair cotton—will be reached. This would give a value of \$327,000,000 for the crop of 1858 coming to market in 1859. Such a value, supported by good crops, and sales of sugar, tobacco, and rice, will give *invaluable* balances in favor of the South, which already presents such a strong contrast to the Northwest, where the prolonging of revulsion lies upon *evil* *altitudes*.

8.—NATIONAL ASPECTS OF AGRICULTURE.

At the late Annual Fair of the United States Agricultural Society, which we attended at Richmond, many thousand persons were congregated. The exhibition was highly creditable. On the grounds and in the banquet-hall the ablest speeches were delivered. We rejoice in the success of this Association, and would like to see the South more largely interested in it as an important auxiliary to the State Societies. Recently Virginia, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, South Carolina, etc., have been most successful in their State Fairs. The Hon. William C. Rives, in his address before the National Society, portrays in glowing colors the importance of their movements :

In that enlarged and comprehensive view of American agriculture, however, which forms the province of the National Society, now holding its annual festival here in the bosom of Virginia, in harmonious conjunction with one of the societies of the State, the agricultural interests of the different States are rarely presented in any relation of rivalry. Nature has so bountifully endowed the grand and teeming continent on which we live with diversified aptitudes and capacities of production, that the rural economy of the United States embraces almost every variety of culture known to the industry of man ; and to each is assigned, for the most part, a distinct and appropriate locality, so separated and defined, as not only to avoid the danger of injurious competitions, but to make the productions of one minister to the natural wants and deficiencies of another.

It is thus that, in the beneficent arrangement of our great national heritage as an agricultural people,

"All nature's difference keeps all nature's peace."

To one region have been given the staples of cotton and rice, to another the sugar cane, to another a plant whose conventional use has made it an article of great and increasing commercial value, tobacco ; one is endowed with peculiar advantages for the production of wheat, another for the grasses and live stock, another for wool, another for hemp, another for mining, another for timber. To all is common the great American cereal, indian corn ; but as its abundant production is almost wholly absorbed in its lavish domestic consumption, it gives rise to no serious or disturbing competition among the producers.

Never was the national agriculture of any country so all-sufficient in itself to supply every want of its inhabitants, whether for food, clothing or lodging—yielding in overflowing abundance the raw materials for manufactures, and multiplied and most valuable objects for profitable exchange at home and abroad—adapted, by the diversity of its productions, to render the different sections mutually tributary to each other's wants—thus encouraging that division of labor which, under certain limitations, is as essential to perfection in agriculture as in the other arts—and able to build up, by natural and spontaneous influences, properly cultivated and wisely directed, the vastest, the most complete and harmonious system of internal commerce which the world has ever seen.

In this great scheme of American agriculture, no one branch pretends to any special favor or peculiar prerogative above the rest. All stand upon the same broad platform of mutual liberty, and the security of skill and labor in the enjoyment of their honest rewards. Each seeks its development, under the kind auspices of nature, in the soil and climate fitted for it, seconded by the creative powers of human industry and science co-operating with the free air, the bounteous rain, and pervading light of heaven.

We sometimes hear it said that cotton is King. But the agriculture of America, as its political constitution, is Republican. It owns no dynasty of privilege or power. If any one of those noble plants which constitute the chosen vegetable races of the New World, could fairly aspire to royalty, it would be that prince of cereals, Indian corn, a proud native of the soil, lifting high its imperial form and tasseled banner above all its compeers, and on the universality of its uses and its presence, founding a claim to universal sway. But the genius of American agriculture, whose vital principle is freedom, accords invidious pre-eminence to none.

It is in this catholic and parental spirit of equal regard for the agricultural

interests and pursuits of all the States, that the National Society, of which you, Mr. President, are the honored representative and organ, desires, I am sure, to exercise its fostering influence. It holds its great annual meetings, in succession, at each one of the States, seeks, in co-operation with the local societies of each, to stimulate and develop to its highest perfection the agriculture of each, and embracing thus, in the grand cycle of its progressive revolution, all the members of the confederacy, it warms and vivifies them all, like the bounteous ministry above us, by the rays of its countenance and encouragement.

Nor is it by its premium list alone, or, indeed, in any noticeable degree, that its beneficent influence is exerted. It is by bringing together periodically, at one common point of re-union, the agriculturists of the different States; enabling them to compare personally their different productions, their different systems of husbandry, their different modes of culture; making them conscious how much these very diversities serve to unite them by rendering them mutual customers and tributaries to each other's wants, instead of jealous and encroaching rivals; that they are the children of one great and glorious country, engaged in the same pious effort to make it fruitful and prosperous and lovely, to whom seedtime and harvest, the early and the latter rain, the palmer worm and the canker worm, bring the same joys or sorrows; and that they have only to know each other and to commune with each other, to feel that they are brethren in sympathy and affection, as well as in interest and in duty.

There is one other effect of these periodical assemblages of the agriculturists of the Union, which I cannot forbear to notice. They are thus made sensible of their collective power and influence for good or evil, and of their consequent responsibility, in all that concerns the destinies of the Republic. If there be any class of citizens, more than another, constituted by nature and Providence as guardians of a country, it is those whose daily pursuits and interests connect and identify them with the soil of the country, who are bound to the country by ties not readily or lightly dissolved, and who must meet inevitably whatever fortune, adverse or prosperous, may betide it.

Their tranquil employments, too, in the constant presence and communion of nature, and remote from those conflicts of human passions which agitate more or less the crowded centres of population, prepare them, in an especial manner, for the calm and sober exercise of those controlling functions which, in Republican governments, devolve upon the great body of the people. The history of Republics, both ancient and modern, proves that the landed interest has, in all of them, been the conservative element by which only liberty and order could be harmoniously united. The convulsions and revolutionary resorts, of which one of our cities, within a few years past, have been the theatres, are beginning to teach the same lesson here, and may produce the conclusion that in America, as elsewhere, Republican liberty, amid the storms and tempests to which it is exposed, will find its only safe anchorage, at last, on the firm foundation of the soil.

But however this may be, the agriculturists of the United States, all will admit, have a deep and precious stake in the common weal, and a highly important part to play in the public duties of the State. Without indulging the emotest jealousy of the other great branches of the National Industry, a jealousy that would be nothing less than suicidal, for commerce and manufactures are the acknowledged and indispensable handmaids of agriculture, it is incumbent upon them at all times to keep watch and ward over those public liberties and interests, on the preservation and due care of which their own welfare so vitally depends.

Patriotism is a plant, then, whose growth should be encouraged by agricultural societies, along with those other plants which engage so much of their attention. It springs spontaneous in the heart of the farmer, and requires only light, and air, and free communication to give it its fullest development. It is a scene like this that it grows and expands with fresh vigor, and we learn to love our country more, as we see how much it contains worthy to inspire a common sentiment of interest and affection. The mission of American agriculture is a moral no less than a material one; and if we shall go forth from this meeting, as I trust and believe we shall, penetrated with a just conception of its noble calling in all its relations, fortified in our loyalty and devotion to our common country, strengthened and renewed in our social and civil affections,

Before the completion of this great avenue of trade and travel, New-York was the second city in the Union in population, dignity, and the extent of its inland commerce. The excellence of our harbor caused it to be much used by our neighbors, who, with better means of communication with the interior, commanded by far the greater part of its trade. That of New-York was for the most part confined to the area drained by the rivers falling into its bay. The cost of transporting a ton of merchandise from New-York to Buffalo, so late as 1817, was one hundred dollars, and the time required twenty days. At that date the population of this city had scarcely reached one hundred thousand souls. The gross amount of our foreign exports and imports, in 1820, was only \$37,789,523.

Our foreign commerce received an instant impulse, from the opening of the Erie Canal. To show how nearly the progress of the commerce on the canal has been allied with that of the city, and that the latter is in a great degree the result of the former, I have prepared a table of the amount and value of tonnage received through it, at tidewater, in the years 1825 and 1857, respectively, and of the progress of the city during the intervening period, in population, wealth, and the amount of its exports and imports :

	1825.	1857.
Tonnage received by Canal at tide water.....	185,405....	1,217,199
Value of tonnage.....	\$18,540,000....	\$136,977,000
Population of New-York city and Brooklyn	175,100....	1,000,000
Valuation of Real and personal Property in New-York city and Brooklyn.....	\$106,000,000....	\$620,000,000
Value of Foreign Exports and Imports of New-York city.....	\$84,057,000....	\$346,939,000

But results so marvellous, and a supremacy so imposing, flowing mainly from the construction of this work, could not long exist without efforts being made by some to regain what they had lost, and by others to divide with us the advantages which we possessed. On the north, with this double object, the grand water line of the St. Lawrence has been made navigable for large class vessels, from the head of Lake Superior to the straits of Belle Isle—a distance of more than 2,500 miles. These straits front the markets of the Old World, which, for the present, are the markets of the new. We have here a competitor raised up, possessing vastly greater capacity than our own work, in the hands of a rival nation, animated by the two-fold purpose to make their magnificent improvement profitable, and, by diverting the trade we now enjoy, to aggrandize themselves at our expense. The St. Lawrence canals pass vessels of (500) five hundred tons burthen—more than twice as large as the Erie Canal will admit, with its enlarged prism. The tolls upon them have been imposed rather with a view to encourage traffic than to raise a revenue. Their success has been most extraordinary. The following statement will show the increase in the amount and value of the tonnage which has passed over them for a series of years :

WELLAND CANAL.		[ST. LAWRENCE CANALS.	
Year.	Tons.	Year.	Tons.
1848	307,611	1848	164,267
1849	351,596	1849	213,153
1850	399,600	1850	288,103
1851	691,627	1851	450,400
1852	743,060	1852	492,575
1853	905,518	1853	561,601
1854	797,210	1854	662,613
1855	849,333	1855	541,254
1856	976,556	1856	634,536
1857	901,072	1857	593,652

The competition of the Canadian canals may be regarded as just commenced. Every few weeks we see the arrival of vessels announced at the ports of Liverpool and London, direct from Chicago and Detroit. Events of recent occurrence.

rence prove it to be the intention of the British people to establish themselves firmly on this continent, and either to constitute their provinces into a viceroyalty, or to consolidate them into one confederacy, under the protection of the home government. The discovery of gold on Frazer river, and the known value of the British possessions on the Pacific, as well as in the interior of the continent, have created a belief that another nation may be raised up on this continent approaching the United States in the extent and value of its territory in population, and in power. Such a commonwealth, it is thought, would be in close sympathy with the mother-country, and would prove its sure ally in checking what the British people regard as our threatening and aggressive policy. They now propose to carry a line of population and public works directly across the continent, which shall be entirely independent of any connection with our own. Already have the improvements on the rivers St. Lawrence and Niagara carried such a line nearly half way to the Pacific. Though necessity may for a time compel the use of the common water-line of the St. Lawrence, a line of railway commencing at Halifax is to be constructed, running north of Lake Superior through the valley of the Saskatchewan to their possessions west of the Rocky Mountains. There can be no doubt that vigorous efforts will be used to carry out this grand object. They propose still further to improve their great water line, and to withdraw it to a still greater distance from our frontier, by constructing a canal from Toronto to Georgian Bay, the eastern prolongation of Lake Huron. Further to the east they are busily occupied with the project of a railway from Halifax to Quebec, for the purpose of reaching a winter harbor of their own—thereby avoiding us altogether. As they are impelled by political as well as commercial considerations, they will doubtless concentrate their energies upon the lines described. We can successfully combat their influence only by making it more for the interest of every portion of the interior to seek our market, by offering a cheaper rate of carriage, and better prices for whatever it produces.

But we have an equally resolute competition in other quarters. Before the use of railroads we had obtained a comparative monopoly of the inland trade of the country, because we possessed the best artificial means of communication by which it could be reached. Our rivals on the south had attempted similar works, but their efforts had proved only partially successful, on account of the physical obstacles encountered. The railway came to their aid, and enabled them to cross the mountain ranges which separated them from the great interior basin of the country, and to dispute upon nearly equal terms, our claim to its trade. The proximity of the cities of Philadelphia and Baltimore to the Ohio river, gives them, as is well known, certain advantages over New-York. These advantages we can overcome only by falling back upon the Erie Canal, and by enlarging its capacity, and cheapening the means of transportation over it, rendering it as much superior to any of the competing works constructed to divert its trade, as it was originally superior to the ordinary highway. This is the problem now to be solved. If successful in this, we shall confirm to our city, beyond peradventure, the supremacy which we have already reached, and which bids fair to make New-York the commercial mistress of the world.

One great instrument in securing such a result is that which has been discussed in the report to which we have just listened. While the motive power of all rival lines is *steam*, we can no longer afford to use that of *muscle* upon our great work. The substitution of the former for the latter, marks the line of demarcation between the past and future civilizations. Only a few short years ago, *muscular power*, either of man or animals, was that chiefly employed in production and in internal commerce. Where steam can be used, it multiplies the power of man ten thousand fold. That the immense amount of merchandise annually carried between Albany and Buffalo, should continue to be moved by *horses*, almost exceeds belief.

Before many years shall elapse, the use of horses on the Erie canal will be as uncommon, as their use for the purposes of trade and travel between New-York and Albany. As upon the Hudson River, so upon the canal, the steam tug will take in its train a flotilla of boats, whereby the length of time now required for the trip, as well as the cost of transportation, will be reduced one half. This diminution in the duration of the trip, must, of course, have the effect, up to a

certain point, correspondingly to augment the capacity of the canal, in other words, to double it. When this shall be accomplished, and the cost of transportation between Albany and Buffalo reduced to \$2 per ton, or 20 cents per barrel of flour, the canal will be restored to the position it once occupied; and it must enjoy for the future, by reason of the greater cheapness of transportation, compared with any other route, a perfect monopoly of the commerce of those portions of the interior previously commanded by us, while its area will be enlarged just in proportion to the saving to be effected.

It would be interesting to show how regularly the area of our trade becomes extended with the reduced cost of movement on our great commercial artery. A reduction, equal to one cent per ton, removes perceptibly from us the dividing line which turns the trade of the interior to other cities. The use of steam on the enlarged canal will reduce the cost of transportation over it from Buffalo to Albany, at least to \$2 per ton—or, as before stated, 20 cents per barrel of flour. At this rate flour can be transported over railroads 100 miles. Such a rate of reduction will therefore extend the radius which describes the present circle of our trade to an equal distance, enlarging its area more than 100,000 square miles, and embracing the most fertile portion of our territory, already the seat of several millions of inhabitants. Such are some of the vast results that are to follow the enlargement of the canal, and the substitution upon it of steam for animal power.

But this is not all. With the valley of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence rivers, we have been accustomed to regard the area of the northern and central portions of our continent, available for agriculture, as exhausted. We limited our vision to the ground we stood upon. But no sooner have we filled up one grand division, than another opens before us. There is, in the heart of North America, a distinct sub-division, of which Lake Winnipeg may be regarded as the centre. This sub-division, like the valley of the Mississippi, is distinguished for the fertility of its soil and for the extent and gentle slope of its great plains, watered by rivers of great extent, and admirably adapted for steam navigation. It has a climate not exceeding in severity that of many portions of Canada and the Eastern States. It will, in all respects, compare favorably with some of the most densely-peopled portions of the Continent of Europe. In other words, it is admirably fitted to become the seat of a numerous, hardy, and prosperous community. It has an area equal to six or eight of our first-class States. Its great river, the Saskatchewan, carries a navigable water line to the very base of the Rocky Mountains. It is not at all improbable that the valley of this river may yet offer the best route for a railroad to the Pacific. The navigable waters of this great sub-division interlock with those of the Mississippi. The Red River of the North, in connection with Lake Winnipeg, into which it falls, forms a navigable water line extending directly North and South nearly 800 miles. The Red River is one of the best adapted to the use of steam in the world, having from twelve to fifteen feet of water for nearly its entire course, some 450 miles. It waters one of the finest prairie regions on the continent. Between the highest point at which it is navigable, and St. Paul, the head of navigation on the Mississippi, a railroad is in process of construction, 60 miles of which will be completed the coming year. The entire distance to be built is only 200 miles. When this road shall be completed another grand division of the continent will, as before stated, be open to settlement, in which communities will spring up with the rapidity which has marked the marvellous growth of our own country, possessing all the elements of prosperity, and of an extensive commerce. This commerce will be added to the abundant one we now receive from the West if we welcome it with such facilities as will enable the grains and meats of the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, and the north shore of Lake Winnipeg, to be set down upon our docks at such rates as will yield a good return to the producer, though transported more than 2,000 miles. No continent can show a parallel, as none can show such stupendous works for the facilitation of commerce by a people "in the gristle and not yet ripened into the bone of manhood."

2.—OPENING RED RIVER RAFT.

DELEGATES from Texas, Arkansas and Louisiana, met in this place the 20th inst. for the purpose of organizing the "Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas Navigation Company," empowering certain parties to remove the raft from Red River, and keep it open to navigation for a period of thirty years, for which service the company is authorized to collect tonnage duties from boats passing through the river, after the obstructions have been removed. The delegates in attendance were: N. D. Ellis, from Texas; Col. C. M. Hervey, from Arkansas; John Hamiter, Dr. T. P. Hotchkiss, and John M. Landrum, of Louisiana. The capital stock of the company is fixed at \$250,000, but may be increased at the option of the directors. No difficulty will be experienced in disposing of the stock, every dollar of which will be taken by planters directly interested in the opening of this great barrier to the development and prosperity of the magnificent country drained by Red River. This accumulation of drift has been a fruitful speculation for more parties than one—appropriations have been wasted on it, sufficient, if judiciously expended, to have removed and kept free from impediment, every foot of the river from its confluence with the Mississippi to the mouth of the Kiawatchee; and though this raft has baffled the exertions of government, agents and employees, it will, before the well-organized and properly well-directed efforts of the gentlemen who are now moving in the matter, disappear like frost before the sun. The charter, as now formed, is objectionable in some of its provisions; the levying of a specific tax upon freight would be every way more equitable than the assessment of tonnage duties. This alteration will be made on the meeting of the Legislature, as will all other emendations that may be necessary to render its operations just and satisfactory.—*Caddo Gazette*.

3.—BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

It appears from the detailed and interesting report of Wm. Prescott Smith, Esq., master of transportation of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, that of 1,000,594 barrels of flour brought to this city during the year ending September 30, over the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 125,255 were re-shipped to New-York, 65,148 to Boston, 17,705 to Providence, and 162,509 to Philadelphia. The re-shipments of the past year were 157,644 barrels more than for the previous year, and leave 633,977 barrels for the Baltimore market, brought hither by the railroad. Of the total quantity of flour brought over the road, 66,819 barrels were brought from Wheeling, 309,793 from Benwood, 11,153 from Moundsville, 294,549 from Parkersburg, and 303,687 from way points.

The quantity of coal delivered by the road during the year was as follows: At Locust Point, 260,699 tons; in the city, 49,829 tons; at way stations, 22,267 tons; for company's use, 45,491 tons. The number of hogs brought to the city for the year was 188,656, against 159,469 the previous year; and the aggregate number of animals was 248,363, against 221,076 the previous year.

4.—RAILROADS OF GREAT BRITAIN—GROWTH, EXTENT, AND WONDERS OF THE SYSTEM.

At the present time nearly 9,000 miles of railway have been completed in the British Isles, and it may be assumed that about 21,000 miles are open for traffic in the rest of Europe, and 25,000 in America.

Some idea of the relative accommodation afforded by railways to the population of different countries, is afforded by dividing the amount of money expended on railways in each country by the number of its inhabitants. Thus in 1855, the money expended per inhabitant, amounted to:

194 shillings in.....	Great Britain.
33 "	Prussia.
36 "	France.
43 "	Belgium.
8 "	Austria.
25 "	Germany.

At the beginning of the present year, the money expended upon railways in Great Britain and Ireland, amounted probably to £313,000,000.

Mr. Robert Stephenson, in his address, delivered at the Institution of Civil Engineers, in January, 1856, observes :

"Our tunnels have traversed hills, and penetrated beneath mountains to the extent of nearly seventy miles. Of our viaducts I am not at present able to give the precise extent, but some estimate may be formed from the fact of there being in London, and the suburbs, nearly eleven miles of viaduct passing through the streets. Of railway bridges there must have been built at least 25,000 ; far more than all the bridges ever previously known in England. * * *

"Taking at an average 70,000 cubic yards to a mile, the earthworks will measure 550,000 cubic yards. What does this represent ? We are accustomed to regard St. Paul's as a test for height and space ; but by the side of the pyramid of earth these works would rear, St. Paul's would be but as a pigmy by a giant. Imagine a mountain half a mile in diameter at its base, and soaring into the clouds one mile and a half in height ; that would be the size of the mountain of earth which these earthworks would form.

"The accomplishment of these vast works has largely developed our knowledge of the principles of construction, and has led to the thorough investigation of the strength of materials.

"The large amount of machinery which the railway system required, has given a great impulse to mechanical engineering.

"It is computed that no less than 80,000,000 miles are annually traversed on our railways. Now, to run 80,000,000 miles per annum, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles of railway, at least, must be covered by trains, during every second of time, throughout the entire year.

"To work our railways even to their present extent, there must be at least 5,000 locomotive engines ; and supposing an engine with its tender to measure only 35 feet, it will be seen that the whole number required to work our railway system would extend in one straight line over 30 miles, or the whole distance from London to Chatham. But these are only engines and tenders. The number of vehicles of every sort employed cannot be much less than 150,000. Taking the length of each vehicle at 20 feet, you will find that could 150,000 be linked together in one train, they would reach from London to Aberdeen, or a distance of 500 miles."

This rapid adoption of an entirely new system of locomotion, which overrode prejudices, destroyed vested interests, and has literally changed the whole face of society, was due principally to the fact, that the trade of the country had in many places reached the utmost extension of which it was capable with ordinary roads and canals. Traction on ordinary roads was expensive ; and canals, which would only accommodate a limited traffic, were liable to the obstructions of drought in summer, and of ice in winter. The railway, on the other hand, could accommodate a comparatively unlimited traffic with greater certainty, greater speed, and at a low rate.

If we look upon roads, railways, and canals, with the vehicles and boats upon them, as machines for transport, a railway with the locomotive is the most perfect machine contrived to perform a similar duty. But the cost of a machine is in proportion to its excellence, and unless the amount of traffic anticipated be sufficient to cover the working expenses of the line, the construction of a railway can hardly be said to be advantageous to the community in which it is placed, though it may be useful to local interests. When high speeds are not required, a railway sufficient for all purposes of locomotion or of intercourse may be constructed and maintained more cheaply than a good ordinary road—and hence a railway will be found to be the best arterial means of communication in a new country. Thus, in the Western States of the United States of America, the tracks of the emigrants have been succeeded by railways, which form the principal links between many of the towns ; and even river navigation has been to a great extent superseded by railways, because they are free from the uncertainties which attend navigation in summer and winter.

A railway will not, however, prove remunerative unless a certain amount of traffic passes over it, and unless that traffic be conveyed in trains of a certain size. Hence in this mode of conveyance the desires of the few must give way

to the claims of the multitude. Railway travelling is, however, so far more comfortable and speedy than any other existing system of locomotion, that where railways exist all classes are, as it were, compelled to resort to them; the same locomotive whirles along the same rail the duchess and the bag-man, the fugitive and his pursuer, the man of business who lives by saving time, and the man of fashion who lives by killing it. The ease of railway travelling has enormously increased the facilities of travel through our own and foreign countries; and this freedom of intercourse has already removed a thousand prejudices, and contributed to the maintenance of those friendly relations which are the best security of mutual advantage, of common knowledge, and of general peace. These indirect results of railway communication on modern society, both in Europe and America, are incalculably great. They form an essential part of that remarkable power which enables man in the nineteenth century to triumph over space and time; and it is one of the imperishable glories of this country, and the peculiar honor of George Stephenson, that this mighty agent of civilization was created by his genius within the territory of Great Britain.

In addition to the indirect benefit due to railway communication by diffusing knowledge and intelligence, it directly increases capital, by cheapening conveyance, and hence leads to increased production. Thus there are parts of Wiltshire, for instance, where, before the railway was opened, (two years ago), the amount of artificial manure sent into the district scarcely exceeded 150 tons per annum; the quantity now sent amounts to between 3,000 to 4,000 tons per annum. So with coal, the introduction of railways in many districts has been the means of reducing the price of coal from 36s. and 40s. per ton to 22s. per ton, and thus, besides the direct saving of money, effected by the cheaper mode of conveyance, the reduction in price enables the farmer and the artisan to save labor by an extended application of steam power. In the cattle trade, the farmers from Aberdeen and Devonshire send up their cattle by railway, either direct to the market in London, or for previous fattening in the rich pastures of Lincolnshire and Somersetshire. Gardeners from the west of England send their early fruits to Covent Garden; and Somersetshire, Dorsetshire, and Lincolnshire, supply butter and milk for the London market. The railways have also largely increased the fish trade.

"Before railways existed, the inland counties of England were unsupplied with fish from the coast. Now fresh sea-fish enters into the consumption of almost every family of the middle class in every considerable town. In the fish trade indeed railways have caused, and are causing, a prodigious revolution. Large fishing establishments have been formed on different parts of the east coast. Before the Norfolk railway was constructed, the conveyance of fish from Yarmouth to London was entirely conducted in light vans with post-horses, and was represented by a bulk of about 2,000 tons a year. At present, 2,000 tons of fish are not unfrequently carried on the Norfolk railway, not in a year, but in a fortnight."—(*R. Stephenson's Address.*)

The effects of the railway on the development of national industry are not less extraordinary.

"Look at the boiler plate manufacture, comparatively insignificant before iron vessels and steam locomotives came into existence, and now one of the most important elements of the trade to which it appertains. Such is the extent of this branch of manufacture, that, extensive as they are, the iron works are not even yet able to render the supply equal to the demand."—(*R. Stephenson's Address*)

Ironstone is brought from Cumberland, from Wales, and from Northamptonshire, to feed the forges of Staffordshire. If railways did not exist, this supply would be as impossible as the removal of the iron produced. The railway also sets free a large amount of capital, by rendering it unnecessary for small dealers in the country to hold large stocks of goods. Railway travelling also effects an important saving of time to the whole community. Mr. Robert Stephenson says:

"Again, 'Time is money.' At least 111,000,000 passengers travel every year by our railways, on an average of 12 miles each. They perform the journey in half an hour. At the average rate of speed of the stage-coach, a journey of 12 miles would have occupied an hour and a half. Here is a direct saving of one hour upon every average journey performed by 111,000,000 of persons annually.

These 111,000,000 hours saved are equal to 14,000,000 days, or 38,000 years, in the life of a working man, supposing him to work eight hours a day; and allowing at the rate of 3s. a day for his labor, the annual saving to the nation, on this low average scale, is not less than £2,000,000 per annum."

The excursion trains, which enable the artisan to leave a crowded city on a Sunday to refresh his mind and body by breathing the pure air of heaven, are most important elements in the moral as well as the physical improvement of the working classes.

It appears from the published returns of traffic upon railways for the year 1856, that 129,315,196 persons traveled 1,822,049,476 miles, and paid nearly £11,000,000 in fares; that 10,450,825 cattle, sheep, and pigs were conveyed at an expense to the senders of £517,786; 23,823,930 tons of merchandise were conveyed and charged £7,685,379 for conveyance; and that 40,938,675 tons of minerals were carried for £3,585,991. The total receipts on railways for the year 1856 amounted to £23,165,493.

In order to carry on this large trade the total number of persons employed on railways on the 30th of June, 1857, amounted to 110,000 persons. We have heard it observed by more than one country clergyman, that the fact of railway companies requiring their servants to read and write has been a great stimulus in many parishes to agricultural laborers to attend classes on winter evenings. In addition to the large number of servants employed on railways, Mr. R. Stephenson estimates that 50,000 men are engaged collaterally in the preparation of iron, timber, stone, buildings, &c.; and that, with their families, those that are dependent upon railways represent, therefore, 1 in 50 of the population.—(*Edinburg Review*.)

5.—THE RAILROAD SYSTEM OF MISSISSIPPI.

GOVERNOR MCWILLIE, in his annual message, a few weeks since, takes a survey of the railroad system of this State, and recommends a line of policy to be pursued. We extract at large:

Believing that our railroad system is a question unsurpassed by any other State interest, and believing, also, that it is the best, if not the only means by which the agricultural and commercial resources of the State can be fully developed, and the benefits of a refined and elevated civilization and social intercourse can be extended to all the members of the body politic, I now invite your attention specially to it.

Either by accident or design, the location of all the various railroads of the State, constructed and to be constructed, have been placed in the most advantageous positions for the general diffusion of their benefits to the people of every portion of the State—and I can truly say, that all which we now need for future progress and agricultural and commercial development, is their completion. On the east we have the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, running through the whole length of the State. On the west we have the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, entering the State near the southwest corner, and after traversing the State for over 300 miles, going out of it near the northeast corner—thus intersecting diagonally the whole State. Then we have the Mississippi Central and the Mississippi and Tennessee roads, supplying the wants of the northwestern portion of the State. The Charleston and Memphis road passes all along near our northern border, entering the State in Tishomingo county, for about thirty miles. And we have in progress, in addition to all those, the Southern road, passing through the Capitol and intersecting the State from east to west. Thus we now have roads in progress, which, when finished, will bring into almost every part of the State the facilities of social and commercial intercourse. But none of these roads are yet completed, or even so near their completion, as to give but partially the public facilities for which their construction was originally undertaken—nor are they yet so far advanced as to give remunerating dividends to those who have so nobly embarked their capital in them. The question which now presents itself for your consideration and solution is, how can these various roads be completed, in any reasonable length of time, and their benefits diffused to the whole people of the State.

I have reflected anxiously upon this subject, and am constrained to say to you, that I can see no means for their completion, but by the interposition of State aid. The self-sacrificing and patriotic portion of the people, who originally entered upon these great works, have exhausted their means, and the credit of the different companies is so much affected by the panic and distrust of the financial crisis of last season, as to be valueless for any useful or practical purpose. The bonds of the different companies are, in some instances, entirely unsaleable, and in others, where they can be sold, it is at the most ruinous rate of discount, thus making the roads to cost much more than their cash value, and, in the end, inevitably throwing a heavy loss upon the stockholders, or those who may hereafter trade or travel upon these roads—for, of course, the charges for transportation must have a certain relation to the cost of the road. Thus, if the road cost 20 to 30 per cent. more than it ought to have cost, the transportation upon such road must forever be from 20 to 30 per cent. dearer than it otherwise might have been, thereby ultimately throwing the entire loss upon those whose necessities may require their use.

It is true, that in the first instance, the loss falls upon the stockholders, but, in the end, it is almost certain to be thrown upon the labor of the country. From this view of the question, it is apparent that the only way for the people to have cheap transportation, is to pay the money necessary to make cheap roads—we are all, every citizen of the State, interested in this result. A case in illustration of this view of the subject, may be found in the instance of a merchant who purchases a stock of goods, but who, from the want of cash, or sufficient credit, is compelled to pay 25 per cent. more for his goods than their real cash value—if he makes upon these goods the usual profit, the loss of 25 per cent. falls on the consumer, and not on the merchant. Thus it is with railroads; if they cost 25 per cent. more than their cash value, transportation must forever (to be remunerative to stockholders) be 25 per cent. dearer than it ought otherwise to have been. None of our roads, except the Charleston and Memphis, are yet completed, but they have all made very heavy outlays of money, and are in a condition of great advancement and considerable usefulness. But though so near their completion, they are brought almost to a stand-still, and I can see no means for their early completion, and equipment with rolling stock, &c., &c., but from the helping-hand of the State—unless the companies consent to heavy discounts on the sale of their bonds, which we ought not to permit, if it can be avoided, as the loss must, in the end, fall on the labor of the people of the State.

I am aware that many objections may be made to taxation, for the purpose of internal improvements. But such objections, in the main, apply to cases to be undertaken and managed entirely by the State—and not to those where the State merely lends assistance to pre-existing undertakings. Our roads have already cost over \$20,000,000 in stocks, loans and income expended in construction by individuals and corporations. This is an earnest and pledge for fidelity in management. I think there is no State in the Union which has not rendered assistance such as is now asked, in favor of their roads. All our roads, by a small assistance, could be rendered promptly useful to the community, and remunerating to stockholders, thereby diffusing a wide-spread prosperity throughout the State.

I would, therefore, in aid of these great and beneficent works, recommend that a tax of one quarter of 1 per cent. be levied upon all the taxable property of the State, outside of that heretofore proposed to be taxed for levee purposes; and that on the payment of this tax, the taxpayer should be entitled to a receipt from the Tax Collector, showing that the money was paid for and on account of the railroad tax—and which tax receipt may be convertible, at the will of the holder, into the stock of any of the railroads of the State, so far as such road may have been a recipient from the State, on account of the proposed tax. This would be but a small burden upon any one, while it would be a great good to the whole State; adding no less than \$50,000,000 of value to her aggregate wealth—thereby scattering broadcast throughout her borders, all the bounties and blessings of an untrammelled agriculture and commerce—accompanied by a general moral and social improvement of the people. This tax, thus beneficent in its effects, would be but a nominal (not real) burden; as an estate of \$100,000,

would pay annually only \$250. And there are but few men in the State, outside of the river counties, who would not be directly benefited more than this sum; and I greatly doubt if there is one in the whole State who would not be benefited directly to this extent; while to many the benefit would be four-fold.

But suppose that here and there, there may be an individual who may receive no pecuniary benefit, he, at least, will have the noble satisfaction of having contributed to the general good of his neighbors, friends and countrymen. He would be proud of the generous patriotism, and that he had acted upon the still higher obligation of doing unto others as he would that they should do unto him.

I have thought it proper, thus to call your attention specially to the *Gulf and Ship Island Railroad*—because, from time to time during the last eight years, the Legislature has manifested a disposition to mature a project for connecting Ship Island Harbor by railroad with our commerce, and with her magnificent timber region. The importance of this connection is the more apparent, now that the prospect of the early completion of lines of railroad in progress through the State, assures us that we will be enabled, by that connection, to avail ourselves of the whole vast railroad system of the United States in developing the capacities of the harbor as a shipping point.

A capacious and securely sheltered harbor exists on our seacoast, having a depth of water sufficient to float the heaviest tonnage employed in the commerce of the gulf. The entrance to it from the sea is free from obstacles, and the approach to it from the main land presents no difficulties which cannot be easily surmounted. To render this harbor available, and thus secure the commercial independence of the State, is the duty of her Government, and should be the pride of her citizens. It is a measure of vast public importance, if not of absolute necessity, and should command the serious attention of those charged with the administration of the State Government. It was, doubtless, proper at the outset to endeavor to enlist private capital and individual enterprise as auxiliary to the construction of the railroad leading to the harbor; but when it becomes manifest that the first great step toward its development, making it the depot of a great thoroughfare for commerce and travel, must fail, without direct aid from the State, it is the plain duty of her government, by some decisive action, to give the assurance that the required aid will be granted.

The indications of public feeling in regard to the enterprise, afford abundant assurance that its importance is properly appreciated, and it is apparent that a measure by which the State shall recognize and adopt, and by which a purpose to carry it out shall be unequivocally evinced, will afford great gratification to the people at large. Such a measure would at once render the lands which have been granted by the General Government, on the line of the projected railway to aid its construction, at once available for that purpose, by furnishing the assurance upon which their value depends, and it would incite private capital. It would attract it to the line and Southern terminus of the road, and stimulate private enterprise to lay the foundation of a city on the seaboard, in anticipation of the completion of the road.

At the last session of the Legislature, an act was passed appointing commissioners to organize a company under the existing charter of the Gulf and Ship Island Railroad, which was granted in 1854. By the terms of the charter the sum of \$150,000 is required to be subscribed to the capital stock before this organization can take place. The commissioners proceeded with zeal and fidelity to perform their duty. Books of subscription have been opened, and such progress has been made in obtaining subscriptions, as to afford a well-grounded hope that the company will be speedily organized. More than two thirds of the required amount have been already subscribed. The company, when organized, will not, then, be enabled to avail themselves of any donation in aid of the construction of the road, except by the General Government. The grant is liberal, but much the largest portion of the lands to which the company will be entitled, are ill adapted to agriculture. They are, however, covered with timber of immense value. These lands, in quantity, will probably amount to 500,000 acres, but a sale of them is absolutely dependent on the assurance which can be afforded to purchasers, that the road will be completed so as to furnish the means for rendering the timber a practical element of value. The

investments by the State are prospective and contingent. The investment from the Internal Improvement fund, amounting to \$733,950, consists of stocks to the credit of this fund, in other railroads of the State, and cannot be used until the stocks of those roads are at par value. That from the 3 per cent. fund consists of bonds, having six years to run, amounting to \$104,790, which cannot be used until the bonds fall due.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

1.—PUBLIC EDUCATION IN GEORGIA.

A CONVENTION of the friends of Public Education was recently held in Georgia, whose proceedings are reported as follows by the Secretary. The movement has our hearty good wishes.

The Committee appointed at a preliminary meeting yesterday morning, to prepare and report business for the consideration of this meeting, ask leave to report :

1. That it is the sense of this meeting that it is the duty of the State to provide for the Elementary Education of all the children of the State.
2. That the Poor School system now in operation in this State, is wholly inadequate to meet the wants of the people, and ought to be abandoned.
3. That a system of Public Education ought to be initiated by the approaching Legislature, having for its object the security, to all the people of the State, of an opportunity of giving to their children a Free Elementary English Education.
4. That, for the purpose of judiciously organizing such a system as the wants of the State require, it is necessary to collect, arrange and digest, all the statistics, within our reach, connected directly or remotely with the subject, and lay the same before the Legislature of the State.
5. That as the most feasible means of accomplishing this object, we recommend that a Department of Public Education be organized by the next Legislature, with a responsible head and adequate compensation ; whose duty it shall be to collect the necessary information, and prepare an annual Report to the Governor, to be laid by him before the Legislature, embracing the most practicable plan for carrying into effect the great object contemplated by this meeting.
6. That the most ample provision possible be made to sustain such system ; and to this end we recommend that the Western and Atlantic Railroad, or the annual proceeds thereof, not already pledged, be permanently set apart for educational purposes, and that the larger proportion thereof, together with all the present fund set apart as a Poor School fund, be pledged to this object.
7. That the several counties in this State, and all incorporated cities, towns, and villages, be authorized by law to organize and carry into practical operation such a system of Public Education as, in their judgment, shall be best adapted to their respective localities.
8. That the several counties, towns, and cities in this State, be requested, at as early a day as practicable, to hold public meetings, and express their approval or disapproval of these recommendations, and make known the result of their deliberations to the next Legislature.
9. That a committee of five be appointed by the chairman of this meeting, to prepare and present a Memorial to the Legislature at its approaching session, setting forth the claims of a general system of Public Schools, as affording the only hope of ever securing the great object in view, the education of all the children of the State.
10. That all the newspapers in this State be requested to notice, or publish, these proceedings.

THOS. R. R. COBB, of Clark, A. COHEN, of Chatham, D. E. BUTLER, of Morgan, A. H. CHAPPELL, of Bibb, and G. B. HAYGOOD, of Fulton, were appointed the committee under the ninth resolution. After which the meeting adjourned.

GEO. P. HARRISON, Chairman.

J. S. PETERSON, }
J. S. PETERSON, } Secretaries.

2.—RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION OF SLAVES. *

UNTIL the abolitionists began their nefarious assaults, the South was progressing very rapidly in the moral, spiritual, and physical amelioration of slavery. Even now such practical philanthropy is not idle. In Unionville, S. C., the Agricultural Society appointed a committee to investigate the subject of slave instruction, and from the report of its chairman, W. A. McSwain, as published in the *Journal*, we extract as follows :

It is the opinion expressed by many gentlemen in the Southern States, who have the largest experience in the case, and are best entitled to know, that religious culture adds greatly in the government and discipline of the slave population—and the strongest evidence they can give is the employment of suitable persons as religious instructors, at considerable cost every year. We could call your attention to a great number of persons, who have, by industry and economy, made large fortunes, who are paying fifty and a hundred dollars a year for the religious instruction of their slaves. The historical fact has gained great notoriety, that Mr. Withers, of Georgetown, after having tried it for many years, provided by will, that some three hundred dollars annually should accrue from his estate for the perpetuation of this service. The testimony of owners and overseers, so far as we have been able to learn, is constantly in favor of the opinion that the investment is not as great as the actual dividend, in the way of improvement.

Some of the facts given, are a stronger sense upon the part of the negroes to obey, and its reasonableness ; a feeling of fear to offend against the obligations of religion, and especially a fear of being church-ed and expelled for disobedience.

We do not feel called upon to express an opinion in regard to the best method of religious instruction, but believe it is just and proper to say, that there are some evils already in existence, under the name, not to say sanction, of religious instruction, that should be avoided.

1. The practice of promiscuously assembling the slaves for religious purposes, when the same is conducted by a slave, is doubtless pernicious and evil ; and cannot be too carefully guarded.

2. The slave is not capable of giving such instruction as is best calculated to do good to the moral sentiments, and the feelings. As a general rule, the inferior intellect of his race, together with a want of education, makes it useless to employ him as an instructor in that department which involves the very foundation of character.

3. It is known that the African is eminently endowed with the religious feeling, and is more easily moved than one of the same type of Caucasian blood. But the religious feeling alone is an unreliable warrant to society for its peace and safety.

All enthusiasm and fanaticism in religion come out of this. The religious feeling is necessary as a proper opening to the authoritative instruction and discipline of religion—through this door all religion is carried to the reason, and judgment, and conscience. This will explain why so many persons, who have had strong feeling in religion, have led irregular, and in some cases disagreeable lives.

4. The slave preacher has no authority of church discipline or government, and having but little of the power of truth, his ministry is substantially powerless, and in some cases an evil.

5. There is a tendency, when a large assemblage of slaves come together, without the guards and restraints of their owners, to fall into a state of vitiated feeling, and receive improper impressions, as useless in religion, as they are dangerous to the peace of society. We are of opinion, that slaves should never meet to worship only in the same congregation with their owners ; or in presence of more than one reliable citizen.

The slave should be guarded likewise against profanity. It is believed, that on all plantations, where the negroes are allowed to swear with impunity, the tendency is to *weaken their sense of obedience*, and strengthen that insolence of disposition to which, as a race, they are remarkably liable. The sobriety of the

negro cannot be too well guarded—he must be regarded an enemy, who, in any way, furnishes the means of intoxication.

Alcohol is unsafe in the hands of the most intelligent, and ruinous, utterly ruinous, in the hands of our slaves.

We believe that on all suitable occasions, the *Bible* should be read to the slaves; for the wholesome truths of Revelation cannot do harm, and are most likely to produce the most wholesome results. We have known several gentlemen who had their negroes called every Sabbath morning, and from the piazza a chapter was read to them slowly, and then they were sent away to reflect upon the reading—we have been assured that the effects were excellent.

In conclusion, we are fully impressed with the importance of the family relation among the slave population. Their morals and religion are probably more defective at this point than any other. It would no doubt be an excellent arrangement to the cause that the marriage ceremony be carefully celebrated among them—it should be done by a white man—and whenever a separation takes place, they should be made responsible; and where one is sold into separation, unless in a case of misfortune upon the part of the owner, it should be in consequence of misconduct, for which he or she is responsible. To keep families together, and to keep them on the same plantation as nearly as possible, is doubtless a wholesome regulation.

3.—PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GEORGIA.

Gov. BROWN, in his Annual Message to the Legislature of Georgia, makes, as will be seen below, many important suggestions, looking to the development of the Common School System of the State:

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.—And in view of the great and acknowledged necessity existing for the education of the children of the State, and of the immediate advantages which would result from the establishment of a practical Common School System, I recommend that a sum as large as the entire amount of the public debt be set apart as a permanent Common School Fund for Georgia, to be increased as fast as the public debt is diminished; and that the faith of the State be solemnly pledged that no part of the sum shall ever be applied to or appropriated for any other purpose than that of education. Let the Act make it the duty of the Governor each year, as soon as he shall have taken up the \$200,000 of the State's bonds, to issue \$200,000 of new bonds, payable at some distant period to be fixed by the Legislature, to the Secretary of State, as trustee of the Common School Fund of the State, with semi-annual interest at six per cent. per annum. The bonds to be deposited in the office of the Secretary of State. As the public debt is annually diminished the School Fund will be annually increased, until the whole debt is paid to the creditors of the State, and the amount paid converted into a School Fund: and as the fund is increased from year to year, the amount of interest to be used for school purposes will be likewise increased.

Should this plan be adopted, in a few years the School Fund of Georgia, including the present fund for that purpose, would be in round numbers \$4,000,000. The amount of interest accruing from this fund, to be expended in erecting school-houses and paying teachers, would be \$240,000 per annum. I am aware of the difficulties which have been encountered by those who have attempted, heretofore, to devise a practical and equal school system for the State, owing in a great degree, it is believed, to the fact, that portions of our State are very densely, while others are quite sparsely, populated. But the fact of our inability to accomplish all we may desire is no sufficient reason why we should neglect do that which is in our power. Probably the principal cause of our failure in the past is attributable to a lack of funds and of competent teachers.

With the gradual increase of the fund proposed, it is not doubted that the wisdom of our State would, from time to time, improve our present defective system, till it would be so perfect as to afford the advantages of education to all or nearly all the children of the State. Let the teachers be paid by the State, and let every free white child in the State have an equal right to attend and receive instruction in the public schools. Let it be a Common School, and not a Poor School. Let the children of the richest and the poorest parents in the State meet

in the school-room on terms of perfect equality of right. Let there be no aristocracy there but an aristocracy of color and of conduct. In other words, let every free white child in Georgia, whose conduct is good, stand upon an equality of right with any and every other one in the school-room. In this way the advantages of education might be gradually diffused among the people; and many of the noblest intellects in Georgia, now bedimmed by poverty, and not developed for want of education, might be made to shine forth in all their splendor, blessing both Church and State by their noble deeds.

Should \$4,000,000 be insufficient to raise annually the sum required, the fund might be increased by the income of the Road to an amount necessary to accomplish the object. The interest on this fund should be semi-annually distributed equally, among the counties, in proportion to the whole number of free white children in each, between six and sixteen, or of such other age as the Legislature may designate. Authority should also be left with each county to tax itself, at its own pleasure, to increase its school fund, as at present. And it should be left to the Inferior Court or School Commissioners of each county, to lay off the county into such school districts, as will be most convenient to its population, having due regard to their number and condition.

EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.—Assuming that provision will be thus made to raise all the fund necessary to build school-houses and pay the teachers to educate all the free white children of the State, the next question which presents itself, and perhaps the most important one of all, is, How shall the State supply herself with competent teachers, raised in her midst, and devoted to her interest and institutions—Southern men, with Southern hearts and Southern sentiments?

For the purpose of educating Georgia teachers in Georgia colleges, I propose that the State issue her bonds, payable at such distant time as the Legislature may designate, bearing interest at seven per cent. payable semi-annually. The interest to be paid out of the net earnings of the State Road; and the bonds to be redeemed out of its proceeds, should it never be sold. That she deliver \$200,000 of these bonds to the State University, at Athens, as an additional endowment; \$50,000 to the Georgia Military Institute, at Marietta, and \$50,000 to each of the three denominational colleges in the State, in consideration that each of said five colleges will bind itself to educate annually one young man as a State student, for every \$200 of annual interest which the endowment given by the State pays to the college; furnishing him with board, lodging, lights, washing, tuition, and all necessary expenses except clothing, which might be furnished by the student himself or his parents. The interest on this \$400,000 of bonds would be \$28,000 per annum. This sum would maintain and instruct, as above suggested, one hundred and forty young men annually, being one from each county in the State, and two from each of the fourteen counties having the largest population, unless other new counties are formed. I propose that these young men be selected from all the counties in the State, from that class only of young men whose parents are unable to educate them, and that only such be selected as are of good moral character, industrious and attentive, who desire an education, and who give promise of future usefulness; that the selection be made in each county by a competent committee by the Inferior Court, after an examination at some public place in the county of all such young men as desire to become beneficiaries, and who will attend on a day to be fixed by the Inferior Court, after giving due notice. Let the committee be sworn that they will be governed in the selection by the merits of the applicant, without prejudice or partiality; and that they will select no one whose parents are known to be able to give him a collegiate education, without doing injustice to the rest of his family.—And I propose that the place of any such student in college be supplied by another, whenever the faculty of the college shall certify to the Inferior Court of his county that he is neglecting his studies or failing to make reasonable progress, or that he has become addicted to immoral habits. I propose that the State, in this manner, give to each of the poor young men thus selected his collegiate education, on condition that he will enter into a pledge of honor, to make teaching his profession in the county from which he is sent, for as many years as he shall have been maintained and educated by the State in college; the State permitting him to enjoy the incomes of his labor, but requiring him to labor as a teacher.

Many of these young gentlemen would, no doubt, adopt teaching as their profession for life. This would supply the State after a few years with competent teachers. And as these young men, while teaching in the various counties in the State, would prepare others to teach without going to college, pure streams of learning would thus be caused to flow out from the colleges, and be diffused among the masses of the people throughout the State. Then we would not so often hear the complaint, that the child must unlearn at one school what it has taken months perhaps to learn at another under an incompetent teacher. This plan is intended to equalize, as far as possible, the poor with the rich, by giving to as many of them as possible, at the expense of the State, an opportunity to educate their sons in colleges, a privilege at present confined almost exclusively to the rich; as poor men have not the means to educate their sons, however deserving or promising they may be.

Under the plan above proposed it is not intended to make a donation, or absolute gift to the colleges, of a single dollar of the bonds of the State. It is intended only to deliver the bonds to the colleges and to pay to them interest semi-annually, as a compensation for them to maintain and educate annually, one hundred and forty young men of promise, who could in no other way enjoy the advantages of a liberal education; who in turn are to diffuse intelligence among the great body of the people, thereby supplying the State with Georgia teachers well qualified to teach the youth of Georgia; and who would be, at the same time, the natural friends of her institutions. As a part of this plan, I propose that a General Superintendent of Schools for the State be appointed, with a salary sufficient to secure the best talent, whose duty it shall be to collect valuable information upon the subject, and report annually to the Executive, to be laid before the legislature—and to traverse the State in every direction, visit the schools, address the people, and do all in his power to create a lively interest on the subject of education.

Carry out this plan, and who can estimate its benefits to the State? I regard the education of the children of the State as the grand object of primary importance, which should, if necessary, take precedence of all other questions of State policy. For I apprehend it will be readily admitted, by every intelligent person, that the stability and permanence of our republican institutions hang upon the intelligence and virtues of our people. No monarch rules here! And it is the pride of our government that each citizen at the ballot-box possesses equal rights of sovereignty with every other one. Thanks be to our Heavenly Father, the popular voice cannot here be hushed in the silence of despotism, but the popular will dictates the laws. May it thus ever remain! How important it is, therefore, that the masses of the people be educated, so each may be able to read and understand for himself, the Constitution and history of his country, and to judge and decide for himself, what are the true principles and policy of his government. But how much more important it is, in my opinion, that every person in the State be enabled to read for him or herself the Holy Bible, and to comprehend the great principles of Christianity, in the eternal truths of which I am a firm, though humble believer. Educate the masses and inculcate virtue and morality, and you lay broad and deep in the hearts of our people, the only sure foundation of republican liberty and religious toleration; the latter of which is the brightest gem in the Constitution of our country.

By adopting the proposed line of policy we have it in our power, without increase of taxation or burden to our people, to place Georgia, as far as education is concerned, in the proudest position of any State in the Union. Let her educate every son and daughter within her limits, and she may then justly boast that she is the empire State of not only the South, but of the whole Union. By this plan the public debt would be reduced, and the school fund increased, annually, \$200,000; and the interest amounting yearly to \$28,000 on the bonds delivered to the colleges, would be paid semi-annually, out of the net earnings of the State Road; and there would be still left an annual income from that source of \$72,000, to be applied to other purposes.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—MONTICELLO, FLORIDA.

PROFESSOR STRUCKRATH, writing to the Review, makes the following comments upon this interesting portion of Florida :

I am now at Monticello, the county site of Jefferson county, which took its name from Mr. Jefferson's residence. The village was established in 1827, and has now some 300 inhabitants. The business is pretty much confined to one street, and the merchants seem to do a considerable trade with all kinds of merchandise. There will be also one railroad branch running in the course of this year, connecting this place with Tallahassee, and the Gulf at St. Marks, by the Pensacola and Georgia Railroad, some four or five miles in length, which would improve the village considerably in trading with the adjoining counties, by affording the planters greater facilities in getting their produce to market. It is a healthy location, and with regard to morality, will rank highly anywhere. There is also a large academy for boys and girls, superior to any in the State, and conducted by Mr. William Girardeau, an able and competent principal. Four flourishing churches—the Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist—have each their houses of worship, with able and efficient ministers.

The courthouse is built of brick ; presents a good appearance, and the law is not very flourishing in it, because the county is generally solvent, and not many suits brought. Within a mile and a half is a cotton factory located, and called the Jefferson Southern Rights Manufacturing Company, and owned principally by General William Bailey. They manufacture chiefly cotton goods, as Osnaburghs, cotton-yarns, and plains. There are also in the neighborhood three saw-mills, owned by W. Cook Smith, Dr. A. M. Manning, and Messrs. H. and J. J. Walker, all in a flourishing condition. Jefferson county is known for its wealth, and, as for its politics, thoroughly democratic, there being some 600 voters in the county, and nearly all on one side. It is called the Banner county of true Democracy in the State of Florida.

A portion of the county embraces as fine lands as any in the State for the production of cotton and provisions.

This village is three miles south of the Lake Micosukie, upon which the Micosukie tribe of Indians formerly lived, and who have given so much trouble to our government for the last twenty odd years, and have lately been emigrated to the Far West by authority of the same. The lake extends from near the Georgia line in a southwest direction, some eight miles, where it empties itself, through a subterranean outlet, supposed either into the Gulf of Mexico or Waukella Spring (some thirty miles southwest of Monticello), the latter having been described so frequently by visitors through the various public presses of our country—among others, in the *Delta*, of New-Orleans, La.

General Jackson had, in 1815, a skirmish with the Seminoles on the above lake, and drove the Indians to Old Town on the Savannah river, where he concluded peace or a treaty with them. This was at the time when he captured St. Marks, on the Marks river, near the Gulf.

2.—GEORGIA RESOURCES.

THE elaborate report of the Comptroller-General, Mr. Thweatt, has been kindly furnished us.

The aggregate value of all the taxable property in the State for	
1858, is.....	\$539,055,114
Valuation in 1857.....	527,828,963

Increase in one year..... \$11,226,151
or about two and one half per cent.

This aggregate valuation is made up of,

33,780,805 acres land, valued at.....	\$138,859,970
432,124 slaves.....	227,468,727
Money and solvent debts.....	89,762,797
City and town property.....	30,110,244
Foreign bank capital.....	773,413
Merchandise.....	10,462,511
Shipping and tonnage.....	768,235
Manufactories.....	8,868,786
Household and kitchen furniture.....	2,084,505
Other property not enumerated.....	24,928,856

Average value of land per acre in 1857, \$4 10; in 1858, \$4 11.

Average value of slaves per head in 1857, \$524 97; in 1858, \$536 39.

The Comptroller estimates that between six and seven millions of acres of land have not been returned, and believes that, if the population has increased since 1850, in the same proportion that it increased between 1840 and 1850, there must be fifty thousand more slaves in the State than are returned. Hence, he infers that the aggregate value of the taxable property more nearly approximates \$650,000,000, than the sum above stated.

The finances of the State appear to be in a very promising condition. The entire debt of the State is set down at only.....\$2,630,000
To which there will have to be added very shortly.....900,000

For stock in the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad, which will increase the debt to.....\$3,530,000

Which is about two thirds the estimated value of the Western and Atlantic Railroad, or the sum it would probably readily sell for.

The total receipts for the fiscal year 1858, including amount on hand Oct. 20, 1858, have been.....\$975,835 29
While the expenditures have been.....745,480 64

Leaving balance on hand Oct. 20, 1858.....\$130,354 65

But as there are balances unpaid, on appropriations made by the Legislature of 1857-'58 amounting to \$110,130 43 to be paid out of the above, the true balance will be found to be only.....\$20,224 22

3—RESOURCES OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

A correspondent of the Pendleton Messenger, writes :

"What is it that we cannot raise that is necessary to subsistence south of 36° 30'! We can grow as good corn, as good wheat, barley, oats, tobacco, rice, hemp, indigo, potatoes, and every variety of vegetable, and last, though not least, that great lever of the world, cotton, whose name is king. Salt, we are deficient in, but we don't obtain that article from the North; and as for coffee, we will filibuster about until we will have that article annexed. The culture of the grape is beginning to arrest the attention of many. We were told by Dr. Tognoli, of Abbeville, who is now engaged successfully in making wine, that this country is well adapted to it. All that is necessary is to understand it properly. Some predict that it is the province of the grape to civilize the world, to supersede the use of mountain dew. In France, we are told, it is a rare thing to see drunkenness, yet they all drink wine, more or less. All we want, then, to be a great agricultural people, is to reduce our farming more to a science. To cultivate less land, and cultivate it better, manure more and clear less. It is said, that the article of guano will make a great revolution in affairs. Fifty per cent. yield is what they estimate it at in the lower and middle districts, where they are using quantities of it. As regards the mineral resources of the South, every day is making greater developments. As for our manufacturing departments, we are sadly lukewarm.

"We must shake off that lethargy which has so long bound us, hand and foot. It is true, we have some few in existence, but none, comparatively speaking,

with what we ought to have. In many portions of the South, we have as fine water-power as there is any use for. Then let us stud our streams with them, and no longer protect ourselves from the inclemency of the weather with Yankee garments—no longer hop the waltz, dance the polka, or cut the pigeon wing with the Northern slipper or fine promella—no longer sweep our floors with their brooms, or drink water out of their pails, and a thousand other things that we ought to feel ashamed of. In other words, let's whip them with their own weapons, beat them at their own game. Let us disenthral ourselves as much as possible from them, and we will then bring them to terms; or if not, when the day arrives for separation, we can, without inconvenience, fall back upon our own resources. We only wish that Mr. Boyce's great hobby could be successfully carried out—direct trade, direct taxation. Let us all be equalized in making the revenue for defraying governmental expenses; not have a tariff for the protection of one half of the government at the sacrifice of the other.

4.—MISSISSIPPI SEACOAST.

An earnest spirit seems to be at work in Mississippi looking to the connection of her seacoast and interior country. The *Democrat* warmly espouses the cause.

We are gratified to notice that the people of Mississippi are becoming alive to the vast, but as yet, almost dormant capacities of our seacoast and its splendid harbor. Not only throughout Mississippi, but in adjacent States, leading newspapers have occasionally directed public attention to the great natural advantages of Ship Island Harbor as a central commercial depot. The wonder is, that such a harbor—spacious, deep, safe, and easy of access—has been so long neglected, situated as it is on the richest commercial pathway in the world, commanding as it does so important a portion of the Gulf of Mexico, adjacent as it is to one of the most extensive naval-timber forests in the world, and also to the most abundant cotton-growing regions under the sun. Opposite this magnificent harbor stretches the seacoast of Mississippi for sixty miles, and Nature evidently designed each for the other. Mississippi has too long neglected to develop the harbor facilities of our seacoast; she seems to have overlooked the fact that she had natural facilities for direct oceanic commerce. But there are now unmistakable indications of a more active and energetic spirit of improvement and enterprise than has hitherto marked the state policy of Mississippi; the people are arousing to their duty with regard to our seacoast—they are no longer deaf to the music of the sounding sea—the noise of its waves has been borne from our shore upon the wings of the wind, to the cotton-covered valley of the Mississippi, and the snowy staple grows eager to take its way across to our seacoast. Everywhere throughout our State the people are anxious for the development of the maritime resources of our coast, and hence the zealous movement now going on to speedily construct a railroad connecting our seacoast with the interior. The completion of the Ship Island Railroad would be the beginning of the advancement of our seacoast interests. To construct that road is, therefore, the first object of all who desire the development of Mississippi's maritime resources. It can be done, is strictly practicable, and everywhere the people have said, and are saying, it *must* be done. The Democracy of Mississippi, in State, district, and county conventions, have favorably recommended the project, and so also have our most eminent statesmen and financiers. The Board of Commissioners appointed at the last session of our State Legislature to take charge of the Ship Island Railroad project, issued an address to the people of Mississippi on the subject, which clearly and forcibly demonstrated the necessity, the importance, and the practicability of the Ship Island Railroad enterprise. Since the publication of that document, there has been a general expression of public opinion throughout Mississippi on this subject, and that expression is emphatically in favor of a speedy construction of the road. We have no doubt that the \$150,000 required as a basis for the organization of the company is already subscribed.

5.—FREE NEGROES.

At a recent Convention of Slaveholders of the Eastern Shore of Maryland, the following resolutions were unanimously reported from the Committee on Business:

WHEREAS, it has become manifest to the people of Maryland, that under the existing laws of the State in regard to the negro population, it is impossible to control and regulate that portion of the community in a proper manner; and, whereas, it is necessary that something should be done in view of the existence among us of the present immense number of free negroes—their habits of idleness and dissipation—the heavy cost of prosecutions against them for violations of our criminal law—the evil example and influence which they exert toward our slave population, rendering them dissatisfied with their condition and comparatively worthless to their owners—their well-known tampering with slaves, and agency in inducing them to abscond from servitude; and whereas, Maryland is, and of right ought to continue, a slaveholding State, true to the interests of her Southern sisters, and herself; and whereas, we, a portion of her citizens, wish to inaugurate a system of legislation, having for its object not only the protection of slaveholders, undisturbed in their right of property, but also the better regulation of all negroes, bond and free, within her limits, as well for the interests of the white citizen as for that of the negroes themselves; therefore, be it

Resolved, That free negroism and slavery are incompatible with each other, and should not be permitted longer to exist in their present relations, side by side, within the limits of the State.

Resolved, That prompt and effective legislation upon this subject is absolutely essential to the interests of the people.

Resolved, That although this Convention has not sufficiently considered the premises to enable them to recommend any particular plan to the action of the next General Assembly, yet they are satisfied that public sentiment is prepared for, and desires relief from the evils under which we are now laboring, which relief, in the opinion of this body, can only be obtained by a general expression of feeling from the people of the State in general convention assembled.

Resolved, That in view of the above, the members of this body, citizens of the Eastern Shore, a section which has suffered more than any other from the influence of abolitionism from abroad, and free-negroism in our midst, deem it right and proper to call upon the brethren throughout the State, not as slaveholders or as non-slaveholders, but as citizens of the commonwealth, to meet them in general convention in the city of Baltimore, on the second Wednesday in June, 1859, for the purpose of devising some system, to be presented to the Legislature of Maryland at its next session, having for its object the better regulation of the negro population of this State; each county and the city of Baltimore having the same representation which they now have in the Legislature of the State.

Resolved, That a committee of seventeen persons be appointed by the Chair to draft an address to the people, setting forth the grievances under which we labor in reference to the matter above indicated, to be published in the newspapers in every county and the city of Baltimore, for a considerable length of time anterior to the period at which the State Convention is to be held.

6.—THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SLAVERY.

THE New-Hampshire *Statesman*, a Republican paper, fixes the responsibility where it of right belongs. It says:

So long as we subsist on the products of slave labor, our mouths ought to be closed with reference to the criminality of those who own and task the negroes. "The receiver is as bad as the thief," says the old proverb. If we would have our rebukes felt, we ought to be unstained with crime and to keep our hands pure from bribes. It would be instructive to ascertain how large a proportion of the productive industry of New-England is employed in the manufacture and sale of cotton cloth. In New-Hampshire several of our chief towns and cities are supported by this species of labor. The friends of the slave tell us that the

slave trade will never cease so long as there is a market for slaves. It is equally true, that slavery will never cease so long as slave labor is profitable to the owners. The price of cotton determines the price of the raisers of cotton. The consumption of cotton in our Northern mills determines the price of cotton in the market. Our extensive manufactories create a demand for the staple and increase its price. This tends directly to make slavery permanent, and prevent its abolition. Our factory operatives are daily riveting the chains of bondmen. Every turn of a factory water-wheel extorts new groans from the oppressed African. Still we exult in the prosperity of our manufactures. We work and reap the cotton that is stained with the blood and tears of unrequited laborers. Is this right! Can we consistently do this while the pulpit and the press everywhere publish the evils of slavery, and pronounce it "the sum of human villainies?" This is playing the part of Jacob to Amasa. We take the oppressed by the beard to salute them, and stab them in the fifth rib. We bewail their misfortune with hypocritical tears, and enjoy the fruit of their unpaid labor. Mr. Webster, in his 7th of March speech, demonstrated the fact, that the increased demand for cotton had given new value to the slave property, and stimulated the South to seek additional territory for the raising of this great Southern staple. Here lies the secret of Southern aggressions. They are moved by love of gain. Slavery is more profitable because cotton is dear. Cotton is dear because England and the free States are competitors in the Southern market for the raw material. These great manufacturing communities sustain slavery *indirectly*, and assail it *directly* through the press, the pulpit, and their political organizations. The only way to kill slavery is to starve it. Let the North have no dealings with the South, and slavery will receive a wound from which it can never recover. But this process dries up the fountain of our prosperity. We need the commerce of the South to keep our manufactories employed. When Southerners desert our market, a cry of distress comes up from Northern laborers. The papers in Lynn and Haverhill tell us that their population is suffering because the shoe-dealers come not from the South. The crisis has stricken trade there as well as here. Our places of popular resort have felt the pressure of the hard times, because the wealthy Southerners have remained at home, or sought other places in which to spend their money.

7.—WESTERN TEXAS.

For some years the public eye has been directed to this region, as being the most important point of emigration extant. Of its future destiny of being in time the most populous, and in an agricultural point of view, most important of any of our new territories or acquisitions, none will deny.

Matagorda bay comes in from the Gulf of Mexico, some hundred and fifty odd miles from Galveston bay. It is the most important commercial point in Texas. Running up a distance of some fifty miles, the towns situated on its borders we will give as they appear after entering the bay. Saluria, Powder Horn or Indianola and Lavaca. Matagorda City is situated about eighty-five miles in a southerly course from the Bar. The Caney river runs near it. On this stream is many extensive sugar plantations. The Texana river comes into Matagorda bay, thirty miles up. The town of Texana is situated thirty-five miles up the river. From Indianola, small crafts and sail boats are constantly plying to Corpus Christi, and all the various points on the bay. Directly back of Matagorda bay is Espiniter Santa bay. The Guadalupe river empties into this bay ten miles up.

The country immediately on Matagorda bay is of a sterile sandy nature, and yields but scanty crops. There is considerable business done at the points on this bay. Many vessels annually arrive. All the goods for merchants in the interior are landed here, and sent into the interior by means of ox-wagons.

The Western Texas and San Antonio Gulf Railroad has its terminus at Port Lavaca. When this road is completed it will bring an immense country into close communication, and no doubt give a new impetus to things.

After leaving the bay towns and penetrating into the interior, some eight or ten towns are met with. The most important, however, are Victoria, Goliad, Gonzales, Seguin, Richmond and Lockhart, &c. The most important city in

Western Texas, is San Antonio. Built entirely of stone, containing many old-timed relics of Mexican dynasty, and its mixed population of Mexican and every other nation of the Christian world, to the visitor it presents truly a business, bustling appearance. The far famed "*Alamo*," where David Crocket was killed, is in the suburbs of the town, and remains to this day as it was the day of the memorable siege and slaughter. Any one conversant with the story of Texas' early history, can, within the enclosure of these walls, find ample food for thought. The San Antonio river runs directly through the city. It has its source ten miles out of town. The Mexican population is gradually, by degrees, disappearing from this city, although the Mexicans now number some fifteen hundred in Bexar county. On a clear sunshiny day, on the banks of the river, scores of Mexican women may be seen washing. If ever the Almighty endowed a chosen people to enjoy extreme happiness on this sublunary sphere, these women are the ones he selected. For, in their humble avocation, contentment and happiness are depicted in every lineament.

Another antiquity is the ruins of several Mexican forts and churches, immense piles of stone, which, doubtless, had their origin two centuries ago.

Constant communication is had here with the region known as El Paso Chihuahua, and New-Mexico. It is nothing unusual to see here a Mexican trader enter the city from one of these points with a retinue of eighty or a hundred wagons, and depart with them loaded down with goods for which he has paid the specie. The police is better organized, the municipal regulations of the city more rigidly enforced, and the general order and decorum of the streets, both day and night, are superior to many of our old Atlantic cities.

To one desirous of visiting Western Texas, the best mode to get there would be to go by steamship to one of the bay towns, there purchase a horse and take it leisurely. All the necessary accommodations for the traveler will be found on the route.

8.—CORPUS CHRISTI AND WESTERN TEXAS.

THE following communication is very interesting, and we invite the author, who signs himself "Amigo," to continue the series :

"As you have generously opened the pages of your valuable REVIEW 'for the discussion of all subjects of general Southern interest, as well as a history of the several cities and counties, their resources, wealth, population, progress, &c.' I have concluded to call the attention of your readers to Western Texas generally, but more particularly to the city of Corpus Christi, which has heretofore attracted but little attention; but now this portion of the State is being rapidly settled, and is beginning to command that position she so justly merits from being the principal seaport for the entire country between the Moctees and the Rio Grande, and a large portion of Northern Mexico, including Monterrey, Zacatecas, and several important cities in that Republic. It has been demonstrated this year beyond a doubt, that the seaboard of Texas is peculiarly adapted to the culture of Sea Island cotton, producing an article of superior staple, and yielding a much larger quantity to the acre than the Sea Island portions of Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina. I am not prepared at this time to state the exact yield, but if you desire it I will, in a subsequent communication, give you the average crop when gathered; also the price obtained. Our corn crops this year have been abundant, being ample for home consumption, and to supply emigrants—in short, everything planted this season has yielded an abundant harvest, and that, too, under the most unfavorable circumstances; our lands were new, and our farmers had not time to make the necessary preparation for proper cultivation; in addition to this, we had a severe drought, thus proving the adaptation of our soil for the culture of cotton, sugar, and grain, with less rain than lands in most States, or, in the language of our farmers, *our lands stand the drought*.

"When we take into consideration the extent of this fertile country, and its rapid settlement by planters of wealth and intelligence, from nearly every Southern State, we can form some idea of the commerce that must at some not far distant day pass through Corpus Christi. In addition to our farming

interests, we have one of the finest stock countries on the globe, both for horses, cattle, and sheep. In this country alone, we have now about 60,000 head stock cattle, and large flocks of sheep, yielding a heavy annual income by the shipment of wool. Our stock of horses, mules, and brood mares, are extensive, and meet with a ready market at our Ranches, from drovers, who make frequent drives to Missouri, Arkansas, and other States; the four counties adjoining this each enjoy the same advantages in stock-raising that we do, and the business is carried on equally extensive. You are probably aware that the New-Orleans market is principally supplied with beef from Texas, and that the shipment of this one article is almost sufficient in itself to pay a line of steamers. Estimating the number of stock cattle in the counties of Merces, Live Oak, San Patricio, Refugio, and Webb, at 60,000 head each, would give us 300,000 head—it is a very safe calculation to allow 10 per cent. for marketable beeves, say four years old and upward, this would give us 30,000 beeves annually to ship, which, at the present rates of freight from Indianola to New-Orleans, \$7 per head, would amount to \$210,000 for freight on beef alone. To make this, however, a certain and profitable investment, steam propellers should be built expressly for the trade, with their decks so arranged that stock could be taken safely, and the lower hold well ventilated for freights, &c., with a plain cabin to accommodate thirty passengers; such a steamer could, in all probability, be built for \$50,000 or \$60,000; and three would be required to make semi-weekly trips between this place and New-Orleans; they should not draw over seven or eight feet water when loaded.

"I have already got this communication too long, and will conclude by saying; that if you desire it, I will continue the subject until I show what I intended at the commencement: First, that Western Texas presents a wider and broader field for the enterprising farmer than most any other country. Secondly, that Corpus Christi, from its position, is destined and must soon become an important commercial point. Thirdly, that the results which must necessarily follow the settlement of this country, are of vital importance to the peculiar institutions of the South.

"As I before remarked, if you desire it, I propose to discuss these points fully through your REVIEW, hoping to be able to benefit some.

9.—MONTGOMERY, ALABAMA.

A WRITER in the *Montgomery Mail*, says: "On visiting Montgomery, I expected to see a town in size somewhat like our Macon, or perhaps a little larger, but was not prepared to find the business part of your town so substantially built, or business brisker than in either Macon or Columbus. I should have formed no correct idea of Montgomery, had I not been bugged round by a friend, who showed me the many fine mansions, and tastefully built cottage-residences, which extended in every direction from Market and Commerce streets, for a mile or two, with their beautiful groves and flower gardens, and neatly trimmed shrubbery, bringing to mind the fabled spots where the sylphs of old played hide and seek.

"Montgomery is destined, ere many years, to rank the first among Southern inland towns. The wealth that surrounds it, and the railroads that are built, building, and projected, are sure to double its present population. There is nowhere in the South a spot of ground more advantageously located, for building up a great inland city, and this will inevitably be done, if a proper direction is given to the capital and enterprise which undoubtedly are possessed by the people of Montgomery.

"The Statehouse, as viewed from Court Square, seemed rather small, but on going up nearer, it was found to be large enough, particularly when I remembered that everybody don't go to the Alabama Legislature, as is almost the case in Georgia, since our grand old counties have been cut up, and divided into potato patches."

10.—AFRICAN SLAVE CREW AT CHARLESTON.

THE Government has sent these unfortunates to Liberia. Upon the policy and propriety of returning them at all, the New-York Courier and Enquirer, well known for its hostility to slavery, well remarks: "Justice certainly did not require it from us, for the original wrong was not with us. Even Charity might well halt in the matter, for we don't read that even the good Samaritan went back to Jerusalem with the Jerusalem man who fell among thieves. Shall we send these three hundred people to Liberia? Will Liberia take them? What that little republic wants is an accession of civilization, not of barbarism. Shall the law be changed so that these negroes may be kept here? Knowing nothing of our language or ways, these poor savages would be as utterly unable to take care of themselves as are children three years old. Who will care for them? Who can take proper care of them without being invested with authority over them, *in other words, becoming their master?* And yet it is the practice of this very thing that has for years been a standing imputation against England. She has again and again apprenticed her re-captured Africans to those who would take the guardianship of them and put them to useful work; and this practically has amounted to involuntary servitude, the very evil she is professing to combat. The subject is surrounded with difficulties. In the premises it is not easy to see what duty actually requires. The question is one of those ethical dilemmas which sometimes arise in practical life, to solve which, even the wisest and best men are puzzled. Our government should take no final action in the disposal of these poor Africans, without mature consideration.

11—THE CHURCHES AND SLAVERY.

WE desire to call the attention of those who believe in Missionary effort, or in proselyting the heathen to our Christian belief and mode of worship, to the following statistics, showing the number of slaves connected with the different churches in the South:

Connected with the Methodist Church, South, are.....	200,000
Methodist, North, in Virginia and Maryland.....	15,000
Missionary and Hard Shell Baptists.....	175,000
Old School Presbyterians.....	12,000
New School Presbyterians, supposed.....	6,000
Cumberland Presbyterians.....	20,000
Protestant Episcopalians.....	7,000
Campbellites, or Christian Church.....	10,000
All other sects combined.....	20,000
Total colored membership, South.....	468,000

It probably never occurred to a political preacher, when denouncing the "great and unchristian wrong of slavery," that God's ways are mysterious, and that even this "unchristian and damnable" institution is effecting greater results than all their Missionary enterprises. Yet so it is.

The Knoxville *Whig* says: "It is a safe calculation to say, that *three for every one* connected with the churches, attend Divine Service on the Lord's Day. In the extreme Southern States there are more, for the owners and overseers require them, in many instances, to turn out to preaching generally. Then the 465,000, multiplied by three, gives us *one million three hundred and ninety-five thousand* slaves in attendance on Divine service in the South every Sabbath.

"Millions of dollars have been spent, and hundreds of valuable lives lost in the attempt to evangelize Africa, and yet *slavery*—the abhorred, cursed, and reviled institution of slavery—has brought five times the number of negroes into the church than all the Missionary operations of the world combined.

"These facts are food for reflection. Self-righteous, and above the ways of *humble godliness*, as political preachers generally are, one would suppose such *practical results* would stagger their self-conceit and overweening confidence, *that they are right* in denouncing slavery, and God wrong in permitting it."

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

Life of Bishop Capers, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, 1858.—This little volume, for which the public must be much indebted to Dr. W. M. Wightman, of Wofford College, S. C., will furnish some interesting material for an article in an early number of the Review. Dr. Capers was a pillar of light to the Methodists of our country, and was admired, esteemed, and beloved, everywhere.

The Methodist Pulpit, South. Published by William T. Smithson, for the benefit of the Methodist Church, South, in the City of Washington. pp. 318.

This is truly a valuable octavo of standard religious literature—worthy of the noble purpose for which it is published. It contains sermons from numerous eminent divines of the Southern Methodist Church, (including Bishop Soule, Dr. Doggett, and others), handsomely printed, and embellished by eighteen superb steel-engraved and life-like portraits. It is justly characterized as a gem of art and a treasury of sacred eloquence.

Catechism of United States History: Embracing the chief events in the History of the Nation from its earliest period to the present time. By B. R. Carroll. Charleston, S. C.: McCarter & Co. 1858.

It is our intention to suggest to Mr. Carroll a few points which have occurred to us in looking over his Catechism, but it must be postponed to another month. The work has many and singular merits, and has been highly commended by the Gov. of South Carolina in a recent message. We regret, however, to find the author using the word "*Nation*" in the connection he does, on his title page, and disclaiming "sectional favor" (page iv.) for his book. In our opinion a school book of history cannot be made to answer the purposes of the North and the South without danger of disguising great truths and principles. Our purpose is not, however, to criticize, but rather to commend the work of Mr. Carroll, which is a worthy contribution to the school literature of the country, by an *able scholar, experienced teacher, and accomplished man.*

The Cotton Manufacturing System.—Mr. E. Steadman has written a work upon this subject to which reference was had in our pages last year, but if he will send us a copy, we will make some interesting and valuable extracts for the benefit of our readers. Mr. Steadman is a practical manufacturer, now residing at Lawrenceville, Georgia, and has had the most extensive and varied experience in manufacturing matters.

Mr. Raymond Thomassy, who is now a resident of New-Orleans, and with whom we are in constant association, has addressed a memorial to the several Southern legislatures upon the subject of the promotion of salt manufactures at the South on a new process invented by himself, which has been frequently referred to in the pages of the Review. He is also engaged in the preparation of an elaborate work upon salt, viewed in all of its relations, and will at an early day give it to the press. In his arguments he assumes the following positions:

1. The Southern sea-salt will compete triumphantly with the foreign salt, and will prevent from the South a yearly drain of nearly two millions of dollars, or will cause a better investment abroad of this money. At the same time, the foreign trade of salt being stopped, iron rails and other articles will be carried, instead of ballast, at a cheaper rate by ships coming from Liverpool to load American cotton.

2. Instead of being used only for table consumption, the domestic sea-salt, thanks to its *trifling price*, will be at hand for the most varied purposes, and will be applied by millions and millions of bushels to industry and to agriculture, especially to the improvement of your sandy pine land, and to the upland cotton plantations.

3. As regards the use of salt for manuring the cotton plant, every one knows, that when made properly, it causes the superiority of the Sea Island staple. For the same reason, it will improve the quality of the upland cotton, and will raise its marketable price. But at the same time, salt is a bulky merchandise to be carried through all the interior by the same cars that go to the seaboard loaded with agricultural products. So that this domestic article, used by millions of bushels, and increasing the freight of railroads, will secure new remunerations to railroad stockholders, thus helping at once the commercial and the agricultural interests of the Southern States.

4. The United States Army and Navy provisions, being cured always with sea-salt, and never with the boiled salt of Liverpool, on account of its inferior quality, is prohibited by the Federal Government. The said provisions will require the Southern sea-salt, and

consequently the meat-curing establishments of the Northern and Western States will call on the Southern salt works, in order to have their indispensable supply.

5. The Northern seaports of the Union, wanting also the same article for their fisheries, where the deliquescent salt of Liverpool cannot be used, will exchange their merchandise for the Southern sea-salt, and South Carolina, and Georgia, or Florida, on the Atlantic coast, Louisiana or Texas on the Gulf shore, will be again called on for another supply of this domestic article, so much cheaper than the foreign boiled salt. Thus, by Americanizing the manufacture spoken of, the South cannot but see the manifold advantages of this new production, which will increase at once her shipping and railroad interests, her industrial and agricultural pursuits.

Cause and Prevention of Yellow Fever.

—We are indebted to Dr. E. H. Barton, long a practising physician of New-Orleans, but now removed to Columbia, S. C., for a copy of his most able work with this title, which has reached its third edition. Hereafter we shall examine it more minutely. It is sufficient to say now that Dr. Barton was Chairman of the Committee on Epidemics of the American Medical Association, and that he has devoted his whole life to these subjects. He is good enough to furnish us a manuscript prospectus of a new work which we give to our readers. It will be published by subscription, and embrace a statistical view of Louisiana and of New-Orleans, showing:

- 1st. All, or nearly all the *Meteorological Statistics* that have been made in the State for near half a century (in different parts of the State) by different observers.
- 2d. The *Dynamics of the Mississippi River*—weekly statements of its rise and fall, at different points, for about the same period. Comparison of the Nile and Mississippi, in different bearings.
- 3d. A full and detailed account of the *different crops*—during the same period—Sugar, Cotton, Rice, Indigo, &c.
- 4th. The *mortality statistics*, in great detail, and with different bearings, as
 - a. Properly classified, according to their several natures.
 - b. Weekly mortalities during every epidemic of which there are records—yellow fever and cholera.
 - c. A minute table of all coroners' inquests—as far back as records exist—in calendar form, showing the cause of death in every case, properly classified.
- 5th. Table showing—by seasons, &c.—the influence of the weather on the crops.
 - a. The rains, temperature, moisture, first and last frosts, &c.
 - b. The relation the rain in one part of the State bears to other parts, &c.,

so as always to know the seasons of each, from any one position, and hence the health, crops, &c.

- c. What condition influences the souring of flour, the spoiling of provisions, &c., injury to dry goods, &c., and the remedies therefor.
 - 6th. The effect of all these influences (climate, &c.) on the different populations, according to nativity, color, sex, age, &c., as deduced from the mortuary returns.
 - 7th. Sanitary maps of the State, showing, by different colors, the sanitary condition of every parish in the State—in three series, viz.:
 - a. In relation to the *zymotic mortality*—or from fevers, bowel complaints, &c.
 - b. Of the more or less prevalence of consumption.
 - c. Embracing all other *pulmonary diseases*, as catarrh, pneumonia, pleurisy, &c.
- To be colored and classed so as to exhibit the greater or less prevalence of each of these in every part of the State.
- 8th. The moral influences bearing on the State, temperance, police statistics, &c.
 - 9th. The *nativities of the different populations*—amount, color, sex—with their relative and progressive increase, &c.
- With a preliminary chapter on the improvable condition of the State, the amount of land under water, or subject to overflow, &c., &c.—the acts and laws in relation thereto, United States, State, parish and city.
- This work is expected to be comprised in a large octavo volume of about 300 pages, with numerous maps, charts, tables, &c.

We had occasion, not long since, to refer to an advertisement which appears in our pages, of West's Improved Pump. Since then the highest premium has been awarded to it by the National Agricultural Society at its Fair in Richmond. This pump is not only very simple in construction, of easy repair, and not liable to injury, but is also powerful in action, both forcing and lifting a continuous stream, answering as well for a fire and irrigating engine.

We are now writing in our old quarters at New-Orleans, where we have again become a fixture, hoping long to remain such, and to enjoy the associations of friends from whom we have been so much separated in the past few years. The weather is mild and genial; all nature seems to be in bloom, presenting an agreeable contrast to the snows and frosts we have left behind us.

Several interesting works from publishers are received too late for notice in the present number of the Review, but they will receive ample compensation in our February number.

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY, 1846.

FEBRUARY, 1859.

VOL. XXVI., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 2, N. S.

ART. I.—OLD CHURCHES, MINISTERS, AND FAMILIES OF VIRGINIA.*

THIS is a work of sterling worth. Though not the best history of Virginia, it is the best book that has been written on that history. Its laborious exploration and exposition of the inmost recesses of society, and its fullness and minuteness of detail, present to us a *tableau vivant* of our ancestry: their manners and customs, their virtues and vices, their perils, privations, and sufferings, and the patience, energy, enterprise, and, above all, the Christian faith and fortitude that enabled them to encounter and overcome the multitudinous difficulties of their early colonial circumstances.

"History can only **take** things in the gross." It gives account only of the abnormal and exceptional among events and among men; of battles and sieges, of usurpations and revolutions, of blood and slaughter, of heroes, statesmen, popes, and kings. These latter, too, are not presented to us in undress, as mere men, but brought forth for stage effect, surrounded with all the pomp and circumstance of state, or the still more imposing and deceptive panoply of war. Said the Marquis Turenne: "No man is a hero to his *valet-de-chambre*." It were well that all histories were written by Boswells, or *valets-de-chambre*; for then, although we might have no picture of men and society in their ordinary and normal state, yet the denuded heroes of the drama would afford us specimens from which we might safely infer the characteristics and condition of their humbler cotemporaries; for kings, popes, and emperors, are neither more nor less than men.

* Review of Bishop Meade's work.

The Bishop gives us no account of heroes or of wars, except to throw light on the religious aspect of the times, or to preserve the continuity of his narrative. He delights to dwell on pious characters; yet, when piety inspires the heart of patriotism and nerves the arm of war, his delight is surely heightened. Had he merged into manhood mid the clangor of arms and of hostile invasion, he would certainly have been a soldier, but as certainly a Christian soldier; for he is, by inheritance, by education, and by early conviction, a Christian. His father was aid to General Washington, and became reduced in circumstances by neglecting his private affairs and sacrificing his time and energies to the service of his country. His distinguished connection, General Nelson, made greater pecuniary sacrifices to advance the cause of the Revolution than, probably, any other man in the commonwealth. The Bishop is, then, by birth and connection, associated with war, and no doubt feels a deep interest in its eventful and thrilling details; yet it is only such wars as his father, and Nelson, and Washington were engaged in, that enlist his feelings, excite his admiration, and command his approval.

Wars such as these, in which the Christian need not be ashamed to partake, are beautifully contrasted with mere ordinary wars of conquest, by Lord Byron, in the following lines, which we quote, as well on account of the beautiful compliment paid to Washington, as for the implied compliment to all our Revolutionary patriots, among whom were the Meades and Nelsons:

- "History can only take things in the gross;
 But could we know them in detail, perchance
 In balancing the profit and the loss,
 War's merit it by no means might enhance,
 To waste so much gold for a little dross,
 As hath been done, mere conquest to advance.
 The drying up a single tear has more
 Of honest fame, than shedding seas of gore.
- "And why? because it brings self-approbation;
 Whereas the other, after all its glare,
 Shouts, bridges, arches, pensions from a nation—
 Which (it may be) has not much left to spare—
 A higher title, or a loftier station,
 Though they may make Corruption gape or stare,
 Yet, in the end, except in Freedom's battles,
 Are nothing but a child of Murder's rattles.
- "And such they are—and such they will be found.
 Not so Leonidas and Washington,
 Whose every battle-field is holy ground,
 Which breathes of nations saved, not worlds undone
 How sweetly on the ear such echoes sound!
 While the mere victors may appal or stun
 The servile and the vain, such names will be
 A watchword till the future shall be free."

The military spirit, which even invaded the pulpit, is happily illustrated by an anecdote which the author relates of General Muhlenburg. The General had, when a youth at a German University, struck a tutor, fled from school, joined a regiment of dragoons, distinguished himself by his bold and daring deportment, and was finally relieved from his situation by a British officer, who brought him over to Virginia to his parents. Here he studied divinity, and became a minister in the Episcopal Church. But his military ardor and warlike propensities were not extinct, as the following anecdote will show :

"With Washington and Henry he was soon on terms of personal intimacy, for in June, 1774, he was with them in the House of Burgesses, being sent as a representative by the people of his county. This friendship had afterward much weight in determining Mr. Muhlenburg to enter the army. Dunmore county, afterward Shenandoah, under the controlling influence of Mr. Muhlenburg, was one of the first to step forward in opposition to British oppression. At the first meeting of its citizens, he was chosen moderator, and one of the committee of correspondence. Although still a minister, he was sent to the House of Burgesses and Convention, again and again, and with all his zeal supported Mr. Henry in the boldest measures he proposed. His character became so well known, that in 1775 he was elected colonel of the 8th regiment, without any other knowledge of military matters than he had acquired when a truant youth in Germany. Washington and Henry both urged his appointment, for they had no doubt seen in which direction his talents moved. His was the first regiment completed on the field. His biographer endorses the tradition of his last sermon, which concluded with the words that there was 'a time for all things, a time to fight, and that time had now come.' The sermon finished, he pronounced the benediction. A breathless silence brooded over the congregation. Deliberately pulling off the gown that had thus far covered his martial figure, he stood before them a girded warrior, and descending from the pulpit, ordered the drums at the church-door to beat for recruits."—(Vol. ii. p. 314.)

One of the great merits of the work is its entire freedom from sectarian acrimony. The pious author evinces as much gratification at the advance of vital religion when proceeding from the exertions of other sects, as if occasioned by his own church. Indeed, while he records only the good deeds of dissenters, he is unsparing in his censures on the conduct and preaching of a multitude of worthless, and often dissipated ministers, who had crept into the Episcopal Church before and about the time of the Revolution. Nor does his charity extend to all modes of dissent. For Unitarians, Universalists, and such like, he has no feeling of fellowship, no words of apology. He obviously considers them most pernicious schismatics—rather to be classed with infidels than embraced within the fold of orthodox Christianity.

The Bishop's love of genealogical research, and his respect for ancestry, are valuable and laudable traits of character. The fifth *commandment* is : "Honor thy father and mother, *that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy*

God giveth thee." And, again, we are warned that "the sins of the fathers shall be visited on the children even to the third and fourth generation." These texts contain sufficient scriptural authority and justification for the reverend author's labors. But, besides, the government of the Jews was theocratic, and in pursuance of Divine directions, they kept both public and private family genealogies. The term "genealogy" meant history, in the Hebrew language, and continues to have the same meaning in part of Western Asia. It certainly is a most important part of history, as the book we are reviewing would alone suffice to prove. St. Matthew terms his gospel the "generation" or "genealogy" of Jesus Christ, meaning the history of Christ. The Scotch, a people as moral and enlightened as any of the present day, are exceedingly careful in preserving genealogies, and in tracing kinship. It greatly increases their circles of domestic affection, strengthens that affection, binds kindred together, and makes them ready to aid and assist each other in poverty and misfortune. It has no bad effects, for Scotchmen, though possessing due pride and self-respect, are not aristocratic in feeling or deportment. Parvenues find it convenient and economical to cut country cousins, and therefore declaim against family. To acknowledge our kin is as often the exercise of humility as the gratification of pride. Besides, in tracing titles to property great difficulties often occur from the want of proof of descent or relationship. The Bishop's book will frequently be used in courts of justice to supply those defects of proof in making out the chain of titles, which silly prejudices against ancestral records and recollections have occasioned in our country. Counties, States, and nations, are but collections of families, and he only is the true historian who writes the history of those families. The domestic circle has fewer guards around it than in ancient times. The head of the family possesses unlimited power. He is often deficient in temper, in wisdom, in morals, and in religion, for the despotism which he wields. He rears his family in ignorance, corrupts them by his example, and oppresses them by his tyrannical rule; yet there is neither law, nor point, nor censor, to check or correct his misrule. Reformation has discovered that kings may do wrong, and that popes are not infallible; but reformation has done but half its work, while it leaves the "right divine to govern wrong" to every worthless husband, and transfers the attribute of infallibility from the Vatican to the cottage. Corrupt, ignorant, or religious families make, in the aggregate, a corrupt, ignorant, and irreligious nation. No political regimen the moral diseases, nor remedy the intellectual de-

fects contracted from evil examples, bad associations, and vicious training in the domestic circle.

The want of some family supervision and control from without, is a crying defect in modern social organization. Writing the histories of families will do something toward correcting this evil, by the incentive which it holds out to virtuous exertion and moral and religious deportment. But the strongest argument in favor of writing family histories, is its conservative effect. Isolated individuals, living in a country to which they have no ties of blood, connection, friendship, or property, can have, in the general, little attachment to their country or its institutions, for "all the world's the same to them." But those who are attached to their country by extensive relationship and connection, by numerous friendships, by ownership of the soil, and by historical or traditional association, must be unnatural in their feelings, temper and disposition, if they do not love their country, and oppose any political or social revolutions, that might involve family, relatives, connections, friends, and property, in ruin. The people of the Southwestern States are descended from those of the South Atlantic States. They are more bound together by strong ties of kindred and affection. Such books as the Bishop's will preserve those ties in all their present strength, and go far to continue and perpetuate that political union among us which is indispensable to our liberty, security, and independence. May many such books as our author's be written, to show that we of the South are one people in blood, in sentiment, in thought, in social organization, and in political interests and institutions.

The author's doctrines on the subject of slavery are entirely satisfactory. He holds that the introduction and continuance of African slavery are providential arrangements. He says: "He who drove out the Canaanites and gave their land to Israel for a possession, has been pleased to drive out the Indians from Virginia and give it to white men, and to the most amiable race of savages which I believe exists upon the earth, and which is far more ready to receive the gospel than the ferocious Indian." He favors the extension of slave territory in order to better the condition of slave as well as master. He says that all attempts to better their condition have hitherto failed, and that "we should legislate for them as a people in bondage, and who may long continue so."

The Bishop himself emancipated his slaves under favorable circumstances; sent them to Ohio, making good provision for them; yet his experiment, like all others of the kind, eventuated in failure. He adds: "While we admit and maintain that

slavery has its evils, we must also affirm that some of the finest traits in the character of man are to be found in active exercise in connection with it. The very dependence of the slave upon the master is a continual appeal to his justice and humanity, and the relation between them is generally a very different thing from what it is believed to be by many who have no opportunity of forming a correct estimate of the same. If the evil passions are sometimes brought into exercise, the milder virtues are much more often drawn forth. If there be less of bodily labor, there is more of mental culture among those who are not obliged 'to hold the plow;' and thus it is that, among the upper classes, there is far more of academic and collegiate education in Virginia than in any other State of the Union, and the whole South and West have felt, and do feel, the effects of it."

The author gives graphic descriptions of many instances of the kindly and familiar deportment of Virginia ladies toward their domestic servants, their participating in, while superintending their labors, and their attention to the moral and religious culture of their slaves. These are not exceptional instances, but faithful pictures of the ordinary conduct of Virginia mothers and their daughters. Roman matrons were not more industrious than Virginia ladies. They are continually engaged in knitting, sewing, attending to their flower and vegetable gardens, seeing to their fowl-yards, superintending the household work, and visiting and taking care of the sick, the infant and the aged slaves; while their daughters on the Sabbath very often spend part of the day in teaching Bible lessons to their young servants, and also in teaching them to read. A few giddy, thoughtless married ladies may neglect their domestic duties, and dissipate their time in visiting, receiving visits, and attention to mere ostentation in dress, furniture, and equipage, but these latter do not belong to Bishop Meade's "Families of Virginia." Southern ladies do not usually scrub and scour, cook, wash, and milk the cows; but they are, nevertheless, as usefully and assiduously employed as those who, for want of slaves, are compelled to fulfil these offices. The Bishop displays not only a want of gallantry, but, it seems to us, an ignorance of the character of the ladies of the present day when he intimates that they have fallen off from the industrious habits of their ancestry. In speaking of Mrs. Thompson Mason, who was coeval with the Revolution, he says: "She was one of those old-fashioned Virginia ladies who, like Mr. General Washington, and Solomon's model of a lady, not only superintended the labors of her servants, but worked with her own hands."

The mere recapitulation of the various matters contained in the two large volumes we are reviewing, would extend this article to too great length, and we, therefore, adopt the imperfect summary in the modest preface, as the best and most concise description of the work. The reader will find much more interesting matter in the book than the preface will lead him to expect.

"In the fall of 1855, the author being solicited to furnish some personal reminiscences of the Episcopal Church, in Virginia, promised two articles to one of our quarterly reviews, which have most unexpectedly grown into two octavo volumes. He was led into this enlargement by the further solicitation of friends, that he would extend his inquiries into former times, and by the discovery that there were materials, not yet lost to history, of which good use might be made. Besides the recovery of many old vestry books, or fragments thereof, supposed to have been lost, he has, either by his own researches or those of friends, found interesting materials for his work in many of the old records of the State, which may yet be seen, but often in a mutilated and mouldering condition, in the clerk's offices of various counties. One of these extends back to the year 1822, and refers to acts of a still earlier date, while some approach within a few years of the same. Other documents, of general interest to all, and of special interest to Virginians, and their descendants, wherever found, have been furnished from old family records and papers, never before used, and which must otherwise soon have perished. The author has wandered, and not a little, nor in vain, amidst old churches, or their ruins, and the graveyards around them, and the old family-seats. The accounts of them, and the inscriptions taken from them, form an interesting contribution to Virginia history. For nothing will the descendants of the old families of the State be more thankful, than for the list of vestry-men, magistrates, and others, which have been gathered from the earliest records, and by means of which the very location of their ancestral homes may be traced. Nor has the inquiry been limited to the records of our own State and country. The archives of Parliament, and of the Lambeth and Fulham palaces, have, through the kindness and labor of others, furnished many important and deeply interesting, and hitherto unpublished documents belonging to the history of the State and Church of Virginia. I shall not here mention the names of those numerous friends, in Virginia and elsewhere, who have kindly rendered me service in the preparation of this work, as they are referred to in one or more of those places where their contributions are introduced.

"The previous publication in a weekly paper of the larger part of what is contained in these volumes, has not only obtained very valuable contributions, but secured the correction of some errors into which the author could not but fall, in such a work, so that it is believed no material mistakes now remain. While portions of the book may have less interest for the general reader, being occupied with things belonging especially to the history of Virginia, yet it is to be hoped that even these may be found worthy of perusal, while the larger part relates to what should be the subject of inquiry to all who wish to be informed on the ecclesiastical history of our country."

Finding many of the Bishop's notices of families, of necessity, meagre and defective, we resolved, in reviewing his work, to endeavor, in a few cases, to supply his defective accounts. We felt great interest and curiosity as to the history of the Lomax and Thornton families, and wrote to Judge Lomax for information. He, very kindly and politely, made the following reply:

FREDERICKSBURG, October 1, 1858.

MR. GEORGE FITZGON, *Dear Sir*:—I was applied to by Bishop Meade, when he was preparing his book respecting the church and the old families of Virginia, for some account of my own family; although it is an ancient family in the colonial settlement, its historical incidents, so far as I could ascertain them by tradition or otherwise, were so little remarkable in their connection with the established church, of which the Bishop was giving the colonial history, that it seemed to me that it would but little aid his purpose to include the Lomax family. You, in the views which you have expressed in your letter, have fallen into some mistakes, as well in regard to that family, as that branch of the Thornton family with which I am connected by marriage, which makes it proper that I should furnish you with a more correct statement.

I send with this letter a statement showing the genealogy of the Lomax family—and hope you will be able to make it out, as I have not time to copy and revise it.

The Tayloe family, from whom we are descended, has already, I believe, been given by Bishop Meade in his book. I know but little of the Thornton family, except as to the progenitors of that branch of the family with which I am connected by intermarrying with the daughter of the late Presly Thornton, formerly of Northumberland-house in Northumberland.

This branch of the family claims descent by intermarriage, at a remote period, from Presly of Northumberland. The Preslys were very early settlers in Virginia, and acquired great wealth, which was transmitted for several generations to their descendants, this branch of the Thorntons, to whom I have alluded. One of these descendants, Col. Presly Thornton, was a gentleman much distinguished in his day for his many virtues, and was a member of the King's Council until his death in 1769. He intermarried with an English lady of good family, by the name of Charlotte Belson, who had been invited to this country by the honorable Col. John Tayloe of Mount Airy, and was adopted into his family as a daughter. This lady, Col. Presly Thornton, who enjoyed a most brotherly intimacy with Col. John Tayloe, took as his second wife, and by her had several sons and daughters. Not many years after Col. Thornton's death in 1769, the loyalty of this lady to her king at "home" was much disturbed at the signs of the times foreshadowing the political change in the relations between the colony and the English government. She, in consequence thereof, shortly before the war, left this country and removed to England with all her children, and among them her three sons, Presly Thornton, John Tayloe, and Charles Wade Thornton. This lady's loyalty was very favorably remunerated after her arrival in England, for she was allowed by the king a pension, and her sons, Presly and Wade, were, while very young, placed in the army, and Tayloe in the navy. It seems that there was an understanding that they should not be employed in service against the colonies. They all three distinguished themselves in the British service: Presly was wounded at the siege of Gibraltar, where he displayed much gallantry; Tayloe was very badly wounded in one of the most desperate naval battles that was ever fought, between an English and a French frigate. In this engagement, the action ceased by the mutual destruction of both ships, and all the men of both sides would have been lost, but for the timely intervention of an approaching English vessel, which rescued from drowning the survivors, who were yet floating upon the waves, among whom was midshipman J. T. Thornton. At a subsequent period, Charles Wade Thornton lost an arm in battle. What battle this was I cannot now say, but I think it was in the West Indies. I do not recollect that the armies of England were ever fighting on the continent during her wars with France, until the disastrous affair at Walcheren, which, if I mistake not, was at a late period, considerably after Wade Thornton lost his arm in battle. What affair was it that proved disastrous to the British arms, under the command of a General Abercrombie? [*Note by Reviewer*.—We have already heard that Gen. C. W. Thornton saved the life of the Duke of York in the Walcheren expedition, and hence (in part), his great popularity at court.]

After the termination of the war between America and England, Presly and Tayloe Thornton returned to this country, leaving the rest of the family in England. Some disquietude being felt under an apprehension that confiscation might lay hands upon Presly's estates, an act was passed by the Virginia legis-

lature in 1783, admitting him to citizenship on taking the oath of allegiance. Soon after which he intermarried with Elizabeth Thornton, daughter of Col. Francis Thornton, of Society Hill, in King George. John T. Thornton died in Northumberland, at a place called Kinnersley, about 1797, and soon after Presly sold out his Northumberland estate and finally removed to Genesee, in New-York, where he died in 1807. He was appointed captain in what was called John Adams' army in 1798, for repelling the apprehended French invasion, whereof General Washington was the commander-in-chief. There is, in Sparks' Life of Washington, a letter written by Washington to General C. C. Pinkney, which reflects great honor on Capt. Thornton.

The first progenitors of the Lomax family were early settlers in the colony of Virginia. The first of them were probably the Wormleys, from whom, by intermarriage, this family claims descent. For the name of Wormley may be traced back in the records of Virginia, as far as 1642-3, when Christopher Wormley was a councillor, and in 1649 Captain Ralph Wormley was a burgess from York; and in 1676 a person of the name of Ralph Wormley was a member of the council: and as such, according to colonial practice, designated as "the honorable."

Another progenitor was Sir Thomas Lunsford, knight and baronet. He was one of those who took part with King Charles the First, in the political disturbances in that king's reign, which ended in the execution of the king. In 1641, the king having displaced Sir William Balfour as Lieutenant of the Tower, it is mentioned in the 4th book of Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, that Col. Sir Thomas Lunsford was appointed to succeed him in that office. This appointment was greatly obnoxious to Parliament—"and within two or three days, at most, he resigned the place, and the king gave it to Sir John Byron." How long Lunsford remained in England, or when he came to Virginia, is not known. Charles was beheaded the 30th day of January, 1649. On the 24th of October, 1650, we find that Lunsford obtained a patent extending around for five miles (3423 acres,) and encircling Port Tobacco Bay, on the Rappahannock River. He had an only child, Catharine, who intermarried with the "Honorable Ralph Wormley."

Sir Thomas Lunsford is not to be confounded with a brother of his, Colonel Harry Lunsford, who is also mentioned in Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, book vii., who was killed, fighting on the side of Charles, at the battle of Bristol, in 1643. Clarendon describes him as "an officer of extraordinary sobriety, industry and courage." In other memorials of him he is represented as most savagely ferocious and cruel to all who were opposed to the king, and it is to him, and not to Sir Thomas Lunsford, that what is said in Scott's novel of Woodstock about Lunsford, should be understood as having reference.

Sir Thomas resided at Jamestown and, as appears by a tombstone in the churchyard at Williamsburg, he was interred there, though the date of his death is not in notice.

The issue of the marriage of Ralph Wormley with Catharine Lunsford was Elizabeth Wormley, and she intermarried with John Lomax in 1663, who was born at North Shields, in 1614-5. John Lomax was the son of John Lomax, a minister of considerable distinction, who died in England in 1691. He was one of that large number of persecuted ministers who were elected or elected after the restoration of Charles the Second, for not conforming to the act of uniformity, passed in 1665. He is described by Calamy, in his history of the Ejected or Silenced Ministers, as a Master of Arts of Emanuel College, Cambridge, and "a man of great learning, even in the opinion of Bishop Cosins, and one of singular modesty." And he is represented to have suffered much for his non-conformity in the reign of King Charles, and was miserably harassed, though never imprisoned. He was often forced to leave his family, and not a little exposed in travelling about the country in all weathers; but God still supported him, and his good mother maintained him. Calamy dwells at some length upon the traits of his excellent character for learning and piety, and Christian meekness and benevolence.

John Lomax, who intermarried with Elizabeth Wormley, died at Port Tobacco in 1729, and Elizabeth in 1740. Their only issue was Lunsford Lomax, who was born in 1705, and died at Port Tobacco in 1772. He and his father, John Lomax, were both included in the first Commission of Justice of the Peace, in the establishment of the county of Caroline in 1727, formed from Essex, King and Queen, and King William; and both were on the bench at the first session of the County Court.

Lunsford Lomax, in 1742-43, intermarried with Judith Mison, who was the daughter of Paul Mison, a Huguenot, who had fled from France, to avoid persecution for his religion, to Virginia, and settled in Essex county, at a place on the Rappahannock, still bearing the name of Port Mison.

The only issue of that marriage, who left descendants, were Catharine, who married Dr. James Roy, and Thomas Lomax.

Thomas Lomax was married in 1773, to Ann Corbin Taylor, the third daughter of the Honorable John Taylor and Rebecca Plater, daughter of the Honorable George Plater, of Maryland, and sister of Governor George Plater, who died in 1791—or 1792. Thomas Lomax was a member of the council in 1781, with John Marshall and James Monroe, while Benjamin Harrison was governor of the commonwealth; and died in 1811—having several children, of whom John T. Lomax, Catharine Lomax, and Eleanor Lomax, and Elizabeth M. Hunter, now of Tallahassee, are the survivors. Major Mann Page Lomax, who acquired so high a note in the American army for his military skill and bravery in the war of 1812, and afterward, was one of the issue of this marriage—and John T. Lomax served as a judge in Virginia for over twenty-seven years, until his resignation in 1857.

After the settlement of the ancestors of this family in Virginia, none of them are particularly memorable for their connection with ecclesiastical matters. Their usefulness was cir-

enriched by their services as rectors, burglers, or members of the council. But they all of them held a high rank among the circle of gentlemen, by which the manners and character of Virginians were so highly adorned during their time, and enjoyed the highest respect and esteem of society for their talents and their virtues.

NOTE.—The two pictures now in my possession are pictures of Sir Thomas Lunford and Col. Harry Lunford. They are small pictures, smaller than the palm of my hand—painted on metal—and seem to me to have been well painted. I have no tradition or account of who the painter was. The English painters in the time of Charles the First were not, I believe, regarded very highly. Sir Peter Lely, and others, from foreign states, had not then settled in England.

A daughter of Captain Thornton (Charlotte Belson) intermarried with John T. Lomax, afterward one of the commonwealth's judges. A son of Capt. P. Thornton, Arthur W. Thornton, was a captain in the U. S. army in the war of 1812 with Great Britain, and greatly distinguished himself by his gallantry upon several occasions. In the history of the war he is several times mentioned with well-merited praise. One occasion, as well as is remembered, was at Lake Champlain (perhaps Ontario), where, with a small company, he battled off an English armed vessel, making an attempt to land; and another, I believe, was at the battle of Williamsburgh, where, by some blunder of an officer who commanded him, he was made to take post with his fieldpiece in a swamp that was inextricable. He afterward died in the service of the United States at Pensacola, about 1835.

Charles Wade Thornton, remaining in England, attained to distinguished honors. He was equerry to the Duke of York (and was, perhaps, at one time equerry to the Prince of Wales). He attained to the rank of Lieut. General and Knight Commander of the Royal Hanoverian Guelphic Order, and Lieut. Governor of Hull.

It is not remembered what particular battles he has figured in, or that he was instrumental in saving the Duke of York at Walcheren.

I am, with much regard, your friend,

JNO. TAYLOR LOMAX.

The Bishop gives, in his appendix, a very short account of the Fauntleroy family. Although connected by intermarriage with the family, we regret that we have little acquaintance with its eventful colonial history. The name is, obviously, compounded of the French words "*enfant de le roi*." There are two traditions among its members: one, that they are descended of the French king, John, who was taken prisoner by the Black Prince, and who died in England. The other, that they are descended of King John of England and a French countess. The latter King John had possessions in France, and spent part of his time there. Either tradition may, therefore, be true. We yesterday saw a tiny china cup and saucer, which must be almost as old as the first European use of tea, on which the Fauntleroy coat-of-arms appears—three infants' heads in a field of gold. The same coat-of-arms is found on the plate of the family, which they brought to America more than two centuries ago.

The Ashton family, of King George, is a numerous and very respectable family, extensively connected, and related to very many of the families that the author has noticed. Their first American ancestor was a Captain John Ashton, who had participated in the revolution of Cromwell's day, and although a Cavalier by birth, had taken side with the Roundheads.

Some years since the family in this country learned, from high authority, that there was a large landed estate in England in abeyance for want of an heir, and that the true heir was supposed to be in America. One of the family here, with some trouble, traced his descent back to the original settler, and proved himself to be the true heir. But, lo and behold! after the title was made out, the estate was missing. There was no English Ashton estate in abeyance. The first member of the family mentioned in history was knighted, on the field of Hallidon Hill, for gallant services in that battle. As well as we recollect, the heroine in Scott's novel of Ravenswood is of this family.

The Stuarts, of King George, father and son, of whom the author speaks approvingly, as talented and pious ministers in the darkest days of the church, were of Scotch descent. David Stuart, the father, ancestor of the Stuarts, of King George, Prince William and Fairfax, was from Inverness. He was implicated in the rebellion of 1715, under the lead of the Elder Pretender, the Chevalier St. George. Immediately thereafter he fled to this country. Having lost his property, but being well educated, he undertook to teach school in the family of Mr. Brent, of Richland, Prince William. Mr. Brent had married a Miss Gibbons, sister of Sir John Gibbons, member of Parliament for Middlesex. His wife's sister being at the time on a visit to his house, Stuart became enamored of her, and succeeded in winning her hand. In the meantime, having studied divinity, he proceeded with his bride to England, where he took holy orders. His son, the Rev. William Stuart, was sent by his father to Scotland, about the time of the rebellion under Charles Edward, in 1745—some say for education, others, to watch the course events were taking. The late Dr. David Stuart, of Fairfax, son of Rev. William Stuart, was educated in Scotland, and recognized, we learn, as a cousin of the deposed royal family. Lady Hamilton, a member of the family, presented him with a miniature of the Young Pretender, taken while the Prince was in Edinburgh. This miniature is still preserved in the family. Dr. William Gibbons Stuart, another grandson of the first settler, was also educated in England and Scotland, by his uncle, Sir William Gibbons. He had a brother, the late General Philip Stuart, of Washington, who distinguished himself, while yet a boy, by leading a forlorn hope at the battle of Entw Springs. Most of his men were killed, and he shot down, receiving sixteen wounds; he succeeded, however, in dislodging the enemy from an important position. Ex-Senator Henry Stuart Foote, is, by his mother's side, of this family. The tradition is,

that they are descended from an illegitimate brother of Queen Mary. His mother was a Douglass, which makes amends for the bar sinister. The Brent family, of Prince William, was Catholic, and did not come exactly within the scope of the Bishop's work. Few of them remain in Virginia, but wherever living, like the Roanes, the Lees of Stratford and Chantilly, and the Masons of Gunston, they have, in each succeeding generation, been distinguished for talent and high social position.

In giving the history of the Fitzhughs, the author says: "The name is a combination of the two names, Fitz and Hugh. Sometimes the one and sometimes the other would precede, till at length they were united in Fitzhugh." The reverend author is mistaken somewhat in the character and history of the name; although it is quite obvious that he has read, but partly forgotten, the true account of its origin and derivation. "*Fitz*" is the Norman French for "*filz*," son. It is a mere prefix, like the affixes, *son*, in English, *ap*, in Welsh, *O'*, in Irish, and *Mac*, in Scotch and Irish. It was employed to designate individuals, in the middle ages, when there were no surnames. A distinguished Scotch gentleman lately informed us, that Mackay and Fitzhugh were the same name. Mac, son, and Kay, Scotch, for Hugh. Not more strange than that Taliaferro (a cutter or worker of iron) and Smith, should be one name. The family is said, by all English antiquarians, to be Saxon, although the name is Norman. We suspect it is of Danish descent, for their castle was named Ravensworth, and the raven was the standard of the Danes. Besides, William the Conqueror, himself of Danish or Norwegian descent, did not disturb Bardolf, then Lord of Ravensworth, in his vast possessions. It is probable he took part with the Conqueror. Bankes, in his *Dormant and Extinct Baronages*, says: "Bardolf possessed Ravensworth, with divers other lordships, in the time of William the Conqueror." His son, who succeeded him, was named Akaris; then follow, in regular descent, Hervey—Henry—Randolf—Henry—Hugh—and in time of Edward the First, Fitzhugh, which thereafter was adopted as the family, or surname. Other chroniclers give the names as Fitz-Henry, Fitz-Randolf, Fitz-Hervey, &c. No doubt, for distinction's sake, they were often thus called. It is to this latter account to which we presume the author alludes. "*Philos*," in Greek—love—is the root whence "*Fitz*" is derived; in Latin, "*filius*," and in French, "*filz*." In the Russian language it is "*Vitz*." The beautiful Greek name, Demetrius, has been rendered Dimitry, in English, and converted into *Dimmotro-vitz*, in Russian.

Fitzhugh was, no doubt, a very common name eight centuries ago. Two were signers of Magna Charta, and one is found on the Roll of Battle Abbey. Those, we suspect, were Normans, and not relatives of the Ravensworth family. This latter family were leaders in the Crusades, and took an active part on the side of the Lancasters, in the War of the Roses. Lord Henry Fitzhugh, of Ravensworth, married a sister of Warwick, the King-Maker; and Hume mentions him as leader of a rebellion against Edward the Fourth, after Warwick's death. This is the last mention of the name in general history. The direct male line failed in the time of Henry the Eighth, and the estate descended to the Fiennes and Dacres, who had intermarried in the family. Catharine Parr, last wife of Henry the Eighth, was a grand-daughter of the last Lord Fitzhugh. Almost the last Catholic Bishop of London, was John, a son of the same lord. One of the Crusaders of this family built a church at Antioch, and another, Redmond Fitzhugh, was one of the conquerors of Ireland, in the time of Henry the Second. After the extinction of the Ravensworth direct male line, we find the name mentioned by Captain Cook, who was hospitably entertained by the president of the East India Company, at Canton, a Mr. Fitzhugh, and who, we suppose, called a sound near Vancouver's Island in honor of him; for we cannot imagine how else the name Fitzhugh should have been given to that sound. A Miss Emily Fitzhugh, of Southampton, England, in a recent correspondence with Mr. Jno. M. Gordon, of Baltimore, speaks of her father and her great-uncle as having held appointments in China. Her great-uncle is, no doubt, the one mentioned by Captain Cook. She became interested, she says, in her namesakes on this side the Atlantic from conversations with Miss Sedgwick. Miss Sedgwick was only acquainted with the New-York branch of the family, who removed from Virginia to Maryland and thence to New-York. These two sisters of the name, strange to say, intermarried with two distinguished abolitionists (and married well), Hon. Gerrit Smith, and Mr. Birney. This branch of the family is descended from the Masons of Gunston, and inherit much of their military and adventurous spirit. Their ancestor, Col. Wm. Fitzhugh, whose mother was a Mason, was a colonel in the British army at the time of the Revolution. He refused to fight against America, surrendered his commission, and, we believe, was detained as a prisoner during the war. His sons, Peregrine, and William (who afterward removed to New-York), were officers in the American army at the siege of York.

The original settler, William Fitzhugh, was the son of

Henry Fitzhugh, of Bedfordshire, England, who removed to London to practise law. William was his second son. His eldest was named Henry, a captain in the British army, a great drinker, and a great favorite at court in the reign of Charles the Second. William removed to this country about 1670, and in 1673 married a Miss Tucker, of Westmoreland. She had not attained her 11th year at the time of her marriage. Her husband immediately sent her "home" to be educated. Wives were scarce in those days. His son Henry married a Miss Cooke, of Gloster. Her mother, tradition informs us, was one of the hundred girls imported into the colony, soon after Bacon's rebellion.

All the Fitzhughs of America are descended from the William, above mentioned. They are, we presume, the most numerous family, descended from a single original settler, to be found in the Union.

We suppose they are descended from the Barons of Ravensworth, because they have the same coat-of-arms which the first settler brought with him to America, and which he directs his London and Bristol merchants to have engraved on plate, which he ordered; because he called a large estate near Alexandria, Ravensworth, and because the family in England are still connected with the nobility.

In two of the notes to Walter Scott's *Rokeby*, this family is mentioned, and in the poem itself there is the following couplet:

"And peasant hands the tombs o'erthrew
Of Bowes, of Rokeby, and Fitzhugh."

In a note to the "Lord of the Isles," we find Henry Fitzhugh in a list of English Barons taken prisoners by the Scotch at the battle of Bannockburn. This is the Henry Fitzhugh with whom the present surname originated, for he lived under the reign of Edward the First, Second, and Third.

Ravensworth, Bowes, and Rokeby, are still found on ordinary maps of England.

The eldest American male branch of the family has become extinct. Thus William, eldest son of the first settler, who married Miss Lee, had one son, Henry, who married a Miss Carer. He had only one son, William Fitzhugh, of Chatham, who married a Miss Randolph. William, of Chatham, left only one son, the late William H. Fitzhugh of *Fitzhugh*, of Fairfax, who married a Miss Goldsborough, of Maryland, and died childless. The Bishop is descended of this branch of the *family*. Mrs. Custis, of Arlington, was a sister of Wm. H.

Fitzhugh. She left only a daughter surviving her, who intermarried with Col. Robt. Lee, of the United States army.

The Alexander family, or rather the first American ancestor of the family, settled near Boyd's Hole, in Stafford (now King George county) about 1670. Besides a large estate about Boyd's Hole, the family became possessed of various other large tracts of land; among the rest, of the site of Alexandria, which town was named after them.

They are of the Lord Sterling family, but not the next eldest branch; for the title and estate of that family being in abeyance for want of an heir, one of this Virginia family proceeded to England and laid claim to the estate, but soon discovered that, though related to the last Lord Sterling, he was not his heir. Gustavus Browne Alexander, of King George, now owns a part of the original tract on the Potomac, including Boyd's Hole. The family is numerous, dispersed throughout the South, and everywhere highly respected.

The name Gustavus, is found in the many respectable families in Virginia descended from the Brownes, of Maryland. It is said that a Scotch ancestor of theirs, a soldier of fortune (but not a mere Dalgetty), was a general in the Swedish army, and intermarried with a sister of Gustavus Vasa, and hence the name in this country. This tradition is probable enough, for Gustavus Vasa was, a great part of his life, a mere subject.

There is another tradition in this extensive connection which the Bishop has put to rest, to wit: That the "Fowkes," their ancestors, are descended from Guy Fawkes. The Bishop shows, that the "Fowkes" are an old English family, while Guy Fawkes, we think, was a Spaniard.

But a truce to this "bold, disjointed chat," with which, however, you, Mr. Editor, cannot find fault, for you complain of our penchant for abstruse philosophical speculation, and must bear, with patience, the opposite extreme of narrative garrulity.

To return to the Rev. author's work, we would say, in conclusion, that it is equally remarkable for its variety and amount of matter, and for its general accuracy of detail.

NOTE.—Curious to know more of the the history of the Thornton, Lomax, and Lunsford families, we wrote to Judge Lomax for information, at the same time informing him we should, in a contemplated review of Bishop Meade's work, give such short sketches of those families as we had learned from loose hearsay, unless he corrected our information thus obtained. This elicited the reply which we have inserted as part of our article—except the extracts from the Bishop—the best part of it.

ART. II.—SOMETHING MORE ON NEGROES AND SLAVERY.

WHILE the Northern people—or a portion of them, for we would not do injustice to any one—are so much exercised on the subject of “slavery,” it may not be amiss to inquire what “slavery” is. The question is soon answered, *thinks* almost every one, *without thinking*. But there are some difficulties about defining the term, and then some in its application to the “peculiar institution” of the South. A resort to Webster’s quarto gives us this definition of *slavery*: “Bondage; the state of entire subjection of one person to the will of another.”

Bondage is a mere synonym of *slavery*, and gives us no explanation of the first term. But take the second definition, “the state of entire subjection of one person to the will of another,” and it will be found that, according to this meaning of the term, slavery does not exist in the Southern States. Thus defined, slavery existed in the olden time, and does to this day, in absolute despotisms, where the will of the ruler may take away the life of his subject—but nowhere else. We cannot conceive that bondage to be right, which would give the master power to take away the life of his slave, unless masters were more nearly perfect than they are. We would be as much opposed to slavery, with this prerogative attached to the master, as any one. But although, according to a decision of the Supreme Court of Georgia, it is no felony at common law, in that State, to kill a negro slave, yet it is made a felony there by statute, and so we presume in all the Southern States. Therefore there is no such slavery in the Southern States as that defined by Webster.

But although we have not slavery as it is defined by Webster, we have among us what is called slavery. And we wish to borne in mind that the negro slavery in the Southern States is an institution peculiar to those States, and is not to be confounded with the slavery which existed among the Jews, the Greeks, the Romans, the Anglo-Saxons, or other ancient nations, or which now exists in many barbarous countries, and in some calling themselves civilized, or enlightened. It must not even be confounded with slavery as it exists, or existed, in South America, Mexico, and the West Indies. For among all these people, and in all these countries, the master either had power over the life of his slaves, or it was so great in other respects, that there might be said to be a “state of entire subjection of one person to the will of another.”

The nearest definition of slavery as it exists in the Southern States, is that given by Paley, when he says, “Slavery is the *ligation to labor for the benefit of the master, without the*

contract or consent of the servant." But even this definition is not altogether applicable to the institution, as it exists among us. For the obligation on the part of the negro to work is not exclusively for the benefit of the master.

In the State of Georgia, which we will take to illustrate the laws of slavery in the Southern States generally, the master has power over the slave—

To command his services at such labor as the master shall designate ;

To confine the slave, and restrain him of his personal liberty ;

To inflict corporeal punishment ;

To sell the slave to another master.

But the slave has the right, under the law—

To cease from labor on the Sabbath ;

To have only reasonable task-work required of him ;

To have of his master food and raiment, in consideration of his services ;

To have this food and raiment after he becomes old and infirm, and unable to labor ;

To have the master restrained in any punishment which may be inflicted upon him, by the fear of fine and imprisonment in the event of cruel treatment ;

To sue for his freedom if illegally held in bondage, and to have jury trial ;

And, in case of a killing on the part of the master, to demand from his grave, through the voice of the law, the life of that master, unless he has committed only justifiable homicide.

These provisions as to master and slave are all expressly laid down in the letter of the statutes of Georgia. And we hesitate not in saying, that her slaves have just as many privileges, with some few exceptions, guaranteed to them by law, as are necessary to their enjoyment and happiness.

If these negroes, which we have among us, were in Africa, in their original savage and untamed state, we would say, "Let them remain there. Let us not bring them among us to assume the responsibility of so governing them as to make them happy." But they are among us, and the responsibility of so governing them as to secure to them the great ends of life, is upon us. To place them under individual masters, jointly with the mastership of the state, and not under the rulership of the state alone, is the best and only thing that can be done for them.

Under the curse of the Almighty, to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, is the lot of man, African as well as Cau-

casian. The African negroes among us, being indolent and stupid, need masters to force them to earn their daily bread. This is illustrated by the thriftless and forlorn condition of free negroes.

Speaking of the necessity man is under to earn his bread by labor, brings us to the first right which we laid down as being possessed by the master over his slave—the right to command his services at such labor as the master shall designate.

The first and main object of all labor is to secure a competency of food and raiment. This the slave does by tilling the soil of his master. And for tilling that soil, the law secures to him meat, bread, clothing, and shelter. And these, after all, are what “earth’s toiling millions,” whether ostensibly bond or free, labor for. And he who is in possession of these, is in a very comfortable condition, and knows nothing about the pinchings of poverty. “Poverty,” says Cobbett, who can never be suspected of being against the lower classes, and in favor of the high—“Poverty is not a positive but a relative term. Burke observed, and very truly, that a laborer who earned a sufficiency to maintain him as a laborer, and to maintain him in a suitable manner—to give him a sufficiency of good food, of clothing, of lodging and of fuel—ought not to be called a *poor man*; for that, though he had little riches, though his, compared with that of a lord, was a state of poverty, it was not a state of poverty in itself.”

Now as there are no chains so galling as those of poverty, and no slavery so bitter as that of hunger and destitution, the negro slave of the South, if he were enlightened enough to understand his own situation, might well thank his master for that slavery which commands his services in such a way as to secure to the slave himself food and raiment, and drives off from him the worse bondage of hunger and poverty, whose chains he would assuredly wear if left to himself.

It follows, therefore, that when the master commands the services of his negro slave, it does not produce a slavery which is a curse to the bondman, but actually saves him from a worse bondage.

We say boldly—and challenge the whole tribe of abolitionists, from the patrician in Exeter Hall to the “short boy” in Fotherham, to deny it—that the joint government of the master and the State over the Southern negro, is no more of a bondage to him than the government of constitutions and laws is a bondage to the inhabitants of Great Britain and New-York. *Vay*, we will go farther, and say that in many European countries, if not in England itself, the laws which govern their *izens* make them far more slaves than our negroes are.

The terms *slavery* and *liberty* are very indefinite terms. There may be such a thing as absolute slavery, but hardly such a thing as absolute liberty. Absolute slavery is the entire subjection of one person to the will of another. The tyrant upon his throne, who has power over the life, liberty, and property of his subject, holds that subject in absolute slavery. But then that tyrant, though without the checks of laws or constitutions in his own dominions, has not the absolute liberty to do as he pleases elsewhere. He is held in restraint by the laws of nations, and the armies and navies of foreign powers. In addition to these restraints, in a limited monarchy, the potentate is restrained by the constitution of his realm. The laws of nations limit the absolute tyrant in his foreign policy. Besides these, the limited monarch feels the check of his domestic constitution, and the subjects of both, as well as the citizens of republics, are restrained of their liberty by the laws of the governments under which they live. Hence there is no absolute *liberty*. And mankind, from the autocrat of all the Russias, down to the semi-brutish African, are, and *must be* governed. And if governed so as to secure the ends for which all governments are instituted—life and happiness—then they are not slaves. They are only slaves when governed so as to defeat the great ends of life; and these ends of life are graduated according to the mental and moral condition of the persons governed. There is no absolute standard of the objects or ends of life, by which to test all the different races and conditions of men. What would produce happiness in one man, would bring misery to another. What would suit the tastes and meet the wants of an intellectual and refined Caucasian, would be but illy adapted to the requirements of an animalized and brutish negro. The republican government of the United States secures the greatest amount of happiness—the proper end of all government—to the former, and the very same end is best secured to the latter by the government of his Southern master, subject to the checks imposed upon the master by his own government. Hence we say that the Southern negro is really no more of a bondman than the Englishman or the New-Yorker.

But we asserted further, that many of the nominally free people of the European States are more slaves than our Southern negroes. For if the negro has that government which secures to him the greatest amount of happiness, according to his capability for enjoyment—as it is demonstrable that he has—and the European is subject to a government whose sole aim is to *aggrandize the ruler*, without rendering happy the *governed*, then the proper end of government is ignored, and

the subject becomes more or less a slave. In many of the despotisms of Europe are men refined, intellectual, and educated, possessing all the tastes, feelings, and sensibilities of cultivated and free Americans. Yet they live under governments which, although in themselves having fewer powers than those of the Southern master over his negro, are nevertheless more enslaving to those over whom they exercise control, than that which rules the African in Georgia or South Carolina; for the simple reason, that the Europeans of whom we speak have more longings, and more impulses subject to restraint, under their government, than the Georgia African has under his. In determining the question of liberty or slavery, we must not only take into consideration the government itself, but the nature, the character, the wants, the sensibilities of the governed. A government, apparently despotic in itself, may weigh less heavily upon its subject, than one having *per se* fewer powers, and a class of subjects over whom, from their natures and attainments, scarcely any government at all is necessary. The Southern negro may be subject to more restraints, in the abstract, than the "Irish patriot." But the negro is ignorant, almost a brute, having no refined sensibility, and knowing nothing of the mental anguish of being a slave. The discipline to which he is subject is only a wholesome restraint of his animal nature, and so long as he has "food and raiment," in the language of Paul, "he is content."

But not so with the "Irish patriot." He may be subject to fewer powers than the Southern negro, but he has many more feelings and sympathies to gratify, and his government restrains him more of his liberty than the government of the Southern "slave" does him of his; because the latter, having fewer wishes to gratify, and those that he has not being of a sensitive character, does not feel his nominal bondage as does the patriot of the Emerald Isle, every fibre of whose heart and soul is alive to the galling of his English chains; and who never feels the operation of a British law, that his heart does not sigh for the time—

"Ere the emerald gem of the western world
Was set in the crown of a stranger."

In selecting the "Irish patriot," by way of illustration, we have made choice of one who is in reality subject to fewer restraints than many other European subjects.

Now we are quite ready to admit that if you take a refined and highly cultivated white man, and submit him to the same government as that to which the Southern negro is subject, it would be not only slavery to him, but the most galling tyrann-

ay. But he is a very different being from the negro, and what would be slavery to him, is not necessarily slavery to the African.

"Plato," says Martin, "was descended from an ancient and illustrious family, possessed of a considerable estate, and universally admired as the profoundest scholar of his age. But neither his birth, fortune, wisdom, nor learning, could protect him from the resentment of Dionysius, king of Syracuse, for being too free with him." It seems that Plato had said something unpleasant to the tyrant of Syracuse about his despotism : and for this the philosopher was taken and sold as a slave for about from \$350 to \$527. Slaves were very plentiful in those days, and sold remarkably cheap, as will be readily perceived, when we consider that so accomplished a person, and one of so great intrinsic value, as Plato, brought so low a price.

Now the condition of Plato was that of a slave indeed, unless his philosophy enabled him to adopt the sentiment which the Bard of Avon puts in the mouth of a Roman hero :

"Therein, ye gods, you make the weak most strong ;
Therein, ye gods, you tyrants do defeat ;
Nor strong tower, nor walls of beaten brass,
Nor airless dungeon, nor strong links of iron,
Can be retentive to the strength of spirit."

And though philosophy might have done much to mitigate the severities of slavery to the Grecian sage, still we may say he was a slave, indeed : for, by the laws and customs of his time, his master had unlimited power over him, even to take away his life. The treatment of the ancients to their slaves was very cruel. But even had Plato's master possessed no more power, and treated him no more rigorously than the Southern master does his negro, still this would have been to him the most galling tyranny. For, in becoming a slave, he was reduced from a position of birth, fortune, wisdom, and learning, to one of degradation. It was very much as if Webster, Clay, and Calhoun, had been taken from the spheres in which they moved, and assigned that of a plantation negro, the master having his power and authority, as well as disposition to use them, increased ten-fold. This would have been slavery to them, no doubt. And with the humane treatment of a kind Southern master, it would have been slavery still ; because they were made by the God of Heaven to be freemen, and not bondmen. They, as well as Plato, had tastes, and feelings, and desires, a restraint of which would have defeated and not secured, their happiness, and which would have made slaves of *them*, when it does not in reality make slaves of our Southern negroes.

The great difficulty with the Northern fanatics—the honest ones we mean—is, that they attribute to the Southern negro refined and intellectual feelings, which would really make bondage very disagreeable to him. But, so far from his having these feelings, the truth is that the negro, unlike Plato in his slavery, is raised from an inferior to a superior condition by his master's guardianship. He is raised from a position of barbarism and paganism, to one of semi-civilization and semi-Christianity.

Mankind may be divided into three classes: the rich, those having merely a competency, and actual paupers. To the latter class all negroes naturally belong. Poverty is their normal condition. Slavery raises them from this condition, and gives them the necessaries of life—food, raiment, and shelter. An inferior position for the negro is not the work of man, but of God. Their inferiority is the order of nature, and the decree of Heaven. May the statutes of the great God be repealed? He who attempts to make the negro the equal of the white man, attempts to reverse the order of nature, to run counter to Heaven's decree, and arraign the wisdom and justice of Him who gives us intimation in Divine Writ, that like the potter he maketh one vessel to honor, and another to dishonor. And even should the abolitionist be so blasphemous as William Lloyd Garrison, and call God's wisdom and justice in question, he should content himself with a mere mental discussion of the question, and not attempt to base upon it action. For the impotency of man to contend with Heaven, should convince him of the propriety of this course. He should ground the puny arms of his rebellion, lest

“ Him the Almighty Power
Hurl headlong, flaming, from th' ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition; there to dwell
In adamant chains and penal fires,
Who doest defy the Omnipotent to arms.”

Take the Southern negro to-day, and, against the will of Heaven, attempt to array him in the garb of freedom, and in what do you benefit him? Without his master's nourishing and sustaining hand he is a pauper; and instead of making him free indeed, by giving him nominal liberty, you merely remand him to a state of worse bondage than that in which he now moves. You give him up to the galling chains of helplessness, poverty, and crime. Knock off, now, what Northern fanatics are pleased to call his shackles, and where *will he go* to get his bread, his meat, and shelter for his head?

“ No foot of land does he possess;
No cottage in the wilderness.”

But homeless, houseless, foodless, and raimentless, he becomes a wanderer and a vagabond on the face of the earth. And if, in his helpless and forlorn condition, he dares to set foot upon the *friendly* soil of some *free* State, the harpies of the law seize him and put him in prison for crime, or sell him for his tax to some one, who, looking upon him merely as a labor-saving-machine, will make a slave of him indeed.

Now, at the close of this article, we have a question to ask : Which are really the more slaves, those who dwell on Southern plantations, or the *fugitives* in the British provinces, thus described by a writer in the *Knickerbocker* ?

"You do not mean to say that those wretched hovels are occupied by living beings?" said I to my companion. "Oh, yes," he replied, with a quiet smile, "those are your people—your *fugitives*." "But surely," said I, "they do not live in those airy nests during your intensely cold winter?" "Yes," replied my companion, "and they have a pretty hard time of it. Between you and I," he continued, "they are a miserable set of devils; they won't work, and they shiver it out here as well as they can. During most of the year they are in a state of abject want, and then they are very humble. But during the berry season they make a little money, and, while it lasts, they are fat and saucy enough. We can't do anything with them; they won't work. There they are in their cabins just as you see them—a poor, woe-begone set of vagabonds: a burden upon the community; of no use to themselves, nor to anybody else." —*Sparrowgrass' Month with the Blue-Noses*.

The only objection we have to making the foregoing quotation, is the extremely bad grammar of the phrase "between you and I," which can be excused only on the ground of the extremely good sense of the paragraph.

And now take this picture of the "condition of the London poor," and tell us who are the greater slaves, they or our Southern negroes, even leaving out of view the fact that the former are white, and the latter black men.

Dr. Letheby, the Medical officer of health for the city of London, has presented a report, in which he says he has visited 2,208 rooms inhabited by the city poor. He says :

"In 1,980 of these rooms—all, in fact, that are at present inhabited—there are 5,791 inmates, belonging to 1,576 families; and to say nothing of the too frequent occurrence of what may be regarded as a necessitous over-crowding, when the husband, the wife, and young family of four or five children, are cramped into a miserable small, and ill-conditioned room, there are numerous instances where adults of both sexes, belonging to different families, are lodging in the same room, regardless of all the common decencies of life, and where from three to five adults, men and women, besides a train or two of children, are accustomed to herd together like brute beasts or savages; where all the offices of nature are performed in the most public and offensive manner; and where every instinct of propriety and decency is smothered. Like my predecessor, I have seen grown persons of both sexes sleeping in common with their parents; brothers, and sisters, and cousins, and even the casual acquaintances of a day's tramp, occupying the same bed of filthy rags or straw; a woman suffering in travail in the midst of males and females of different families that tenant the same room; where birth and death go hand in hand; where the child but newly born, the patient cast down with fever, and the corpse waiting for interment, have no separation from each other or from the rest of the inmates."

Thank God there is in the South no such slavery as this. We do most heartily wish that such slavery could be abolished. But British philanthropists are too busy with our negroes to alleviate the sufferings of their own slaves to poverty, simply, we suppose, because they are not so fortunate as to have black skins.

ART. III.—THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE SLAVE TRADE.

THE learned Secretary of State, in his very able letter to Lord Napier, on the subject of our African coast fleet, says, in effect, (we regret that we have not his letter before us), that 'the slave trade has been universally considered and treated as a legitimate branch of commerce.' That is, that it involves no breach of morality, "according to the universal opinion and practice of mankind; that the allied powers who have united to put down one branch of it—the trade in savage Africans—have made that an offence, nay, the blackest of crimes, which is not criminal in itself, but only criminal because it involves a violation of law." In the words of the law-writers, that it is not a "*malum in se*," but merely a "*malum prohibitum*." The secretary goes on to more than intimate, that France and England, or at least England, has, by most extensively engaging in the coolie trade, grossly violated the spirit of the treaty, while complaining, without ground, of its violation by us. In fine, it is deducible from the secretary's letter, that the allies have made that a capital crime, which is not even a breach of morality, and vastly increased the slave trade itself, which they attempted to suppress. Our citizens may, with impunity, engage in the white slave trade in Asia. That stands just as in the days of Abraham and Joseph: "a legitimate branch of commerce."

Now, as the administration, through the Secretary of State, has explicitly declared that there is nothing wrong *per se* in the slave trade, and that the laws to suppress it are worse than inoperative, will it not direct a *nolle prosequi* to be entered in the prosecutions in the federal courts, against the captain and crew of the slaver Echo? Or will it hang men, who have, according to its own declared opinion, committed no crime; or if any crime, that only of violating a law which itself violates, the universal moral sense of mankind?

With the opinions which the administration, through its organ, the Secretary of State, has proclaimed, and with the *pardoning and dispensing* power it possesses, we think it will *own* our moral guilt, if it suffers these men to be hung. An act

of omission, in a case like this, is equally criminal with an act of commission.

The pardoning power was not given to be capriciously withheld or exercised.

The despot who inflicts death on the innocent, without even the form of trial, is not one whit more guilty than the administration that withholds a pardon, in a case which it has prejudged and pronounced free from all moral guilt; nay, more, in which it has as good as declared the prohibitory legislation useless because inoperative.*

We believe the administration will pardon these men, if convicted; or direct a *nolle prosequi* to be entered.

England and France, by means of the coolie and apprentice trades, must, ere long, outstrip us in the production of tropical crops and fruits, should we neglect to revive the African slave trade. Three-fourths of the lands of the South lie fallow, and are valueless, for want of labor to till them. Were they stocked with slaves, their appreciation in value would be twenty-fold any depreciation that might ensue, in the value of our present slaves.

That depreciation will as certainly ensue, if France and England procure a sufficient supply of tropical or Southern labor, as if we procure it ourselves: for it will be occasioned by the increased supply and reduced prices of the products of slave labor, no matter where or by whom those products are reared. The revival of this trade, by ourselves, is the only possible measure that will prevent the wholesale ruin of the South, which its revival by France and England is sure, otherwise, to occasion.

No other measure can save the Union from dissolution; for, without the introduction of more slaves, the South can never settle another territory; and she will not submit to the monopoly by the North, of all that territory which she was chiefly instrumental in acquiring.

All the North is deeply and vitally interested in the revival of this trade, for it will cheapen slave products, which are indispensable to her for food, for clothing, for trade and manufactures. It will, besides, increase the market and the price of her manufactures, and furnish additional freights for her shipping. A revenue tariff almost gives her the monopoly of the Southern market, and that market would soon be quadrupled by the proposed measure. She needs slaves herself, as domestic servants, in her Eastern cities, to work her coal and iron mines,

* A "*malum prohibitum*" should be punished as a crime, when it violates the policy of the country making it crime; but these men were not bringing slaves to America, but to Cuba.

nd to do the coarse common labor in brick-yards, in wood and timber getting, on public works of internal improvement, and as field farming hands in the northwest (including Western New-York and Western Pennsylvania). Moreover, the slave trade itself will be a most profitable branch of commerce to the North. *She* will not oppose the measure. A few large slaveholders at the South may do so for a while. But, generally, this class of men are so well-informed, so comprehensive in their views, and so patriotic, that we find them the first to advocate the revival of the trade. If not renewed, the South will speedily be surrounded by a cordon of free States, and Virginia, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, and Texas, be abolitionized by the influx of Northerners and foreigners. But this trade is revived, and is carried on with ten times the profit, double the cruelty, and to five times the amount, that it was before the abortive attempts to suppress it. Few names have, in most instances, been given to it, as a veil to English and French faithlessness and hypocrisy; but the thing itself is only changed by its aggravated cruelties and increased amount.

We cannot prevent this trade. We have made faithful, earnest, but abortive efforts to do so. Shall we now busy ourselves with internal feuds and dissensions growing out of his traffic, while others are reaping its profits? Shall we incur certain, speedy disunion and pecuniary ruin, in idle efforts to put down the oldest and most universal and legitimate branch of commerce? or shall we also engage in it, and become speedily the greatest of nations, ancient or modern, by making all other nations dependent on us for half the necessities and luxuries and comforts of life?

If we do not legalize it, the laws prohibiting it will become unoperative, for Texas, and two thirds the rest of the South, need more slaves, and will have them—while the North is ever ready to incur the risk of supplying them.

To be consistent, the administration must sustain the proposed measure. It was brought into power as the friend of the institution of negro slavery. It is sustained by the slave States alone. It has declared the slave trade to be a legitimate branch of commerce. It is considered at the North, and throughout Europe, as friendly to this trade. If it opposes it, it will have no friends left, no measures to propose. The acquisition of Mexico and Cuba, without the revival of the slave trade, would be abolition measures, and would find favor with abolitionists, but none at the South.

Never has public opinion changed so rapidly on any subject on this, within the past two years. In France, England,

and America, the tone of the press, and of legislative bodies, is wholly different from what it was but a short time since. Experience has satisfied Christendom as well of the necessity of African slavery, as of the absurdity and mischievousness of negro emancipation. The South sees that slavery and the internal slave trade admit of no excuse or justification if the African trade be piracy. No administration can, or should, retain the confidence, respect, or support of the South, that is not ready to blot out this foul imputation from our statute-book.

Since writing the above, we have obtained a copy of Gen. Cass's letter to Lord Napier, and find it a much stronger argument in favor of the renewal of the slave trade than we represented it to be. It seems to us it fully commits the administration to the doctrine, that all attempts at suppressing have been and will continue vain and nugatory, because those who are leagued to suppress it, are most active in carrying it on—only giving new names to old actions; or if it were possible to suppress it, it could only be done by a palpable violation of the laws of nations and universal usages of mankind. The whole letter, from which we give only an extract, is marked by singular ability, and is a fine model of delicate sarcasm, and concise, comprehensive, overwhelming logic.

The obstacles in the way of the successful operation of the blockade system have been rendered sufficiently obvious by the experiment that has been made. The extent and indentations of the coast, the insalubrity of the climate, the paucity of the civilized settlements, and the want of co-operation on the part of the native population, together with the measures resorted to by the slave-traders, render it difficult, almost impracticable, indeed, hermetically to close this long sea margin, occupying the tropical regions of the continent.

But there are other causes in operation, tending to affect the hopes, heretofore so generally indulged, of the success of blockading squadrons upon the coast of Africa. The same state of things which has stimulated this trade into renewed activity, by the increased profits attending it, has produced a marked effect upon public opinion in Europe, and may lead to a relaxation in the measures for its suppression. The deficiency of labor in the tropical possessions of England and France, and the consequent falling off in their valuable products, now constitute a subject of anxious inquiry in both countries. The lamentable condition to which those once rich and flourishing colonies have been reduced, under expectations which have not been realized, and the indolence and distress of the emancipated population, present matters of grave reflection, as well for the statesman, as for the philanthropist. Means are in progress to remedy the evil by the importation of laborers; but of their precise nature, and of the extent to which they have been or are proposed to be carried, the information which has reached me is not as definite as is desirable. Independently of the supplies procured in other quarters of the globe, it is known that measures with this view have been taken in France, and have met the approbation of the government for furnishing their colonies with laborers by "African emigration," as it is called. And that not only "freemen" may be engaged, but those "also who have been previously slaves." It is known that communications upon this subject have passed between the British and the French governments, and that the former "would not object to the French scheme, while the wants of British colonies are being supplied by

the coolie trade." It is also known that the British government, apprehending this process of supply might prove an "indirect obstacle" to the extinction of the slave trade, has proposed to the government of France to substitute "Indian emigration for African emigration," and that this suggestion is now a subject of discussion between the two governments. Whatever guards may be thrown around this plan of agricultural relief, it is still a doubtful experiment, necessarily subject to great abuses. And this apprehension is confirmed by recent events, and, among others, by a statement made a few days since in the British House of Lords, where it was said that "this system meant nothing more nor less than purchasing negroes on the coast of Africa, and pretending to ship them as free negroes." It was also said upon the same occasion, and by the same distinguished speaker, that there was a frightful mortality among these "emigrants," and that they were treated precisely as the slave negroes used to be treated in the time of the old African slave trade.

The Earl of Malmesbury said, that "between this new French plan of carrying free negroes and the old slave trade, there was a distinction without a difference, and he need not, he hoped, assure his noble friend that the government would use all their endeavors to discourage the practice." The inception and partial execution of these measures have produced an unfavorable impression, and have led to a fear in the public mind that the plan will practically prove to be but another form of slave trading. Official reports have been received from the American African squadron confirming this opinion, and the message of the president of Liberia to the legislature, in December last, presents facts still further justifying the apprehensions to which this scheme has given rise. He states that its effects have already been felt, and that the measures have excited wars among the native tribes, with a view to the capture of prisoners and their sale to the European adventurers. But it is not at all necessary that I should enter into the consideration of these means of supply, except so far as they bear upon the question of the efficacy of a blockading squadron; for the subject has no other interest for the United States than as a general question, and however extensive in its operation, still without peculiar application to them. *They have no tropical colonies reduced from a state of prosperity to adversity, and which they seek to redeem from this condition by the introduction of involuntary emigrants, of any color whatever, for the purpose of carrying on the labors of agriculture.* They have no necessity nor any design to resort to other countries for a supply of forced laborers, whether coolies, or emigrants, or apprentices, or by whatever name denominated, or of any laborers, who, if not compelled by actual force to enter into distant servitude, are compelled thereto by considerations little less voluntary, and in utter ignorance of the true condition into which they are about to enter. This state of things, while it offers no justification for the African slave trade, indicates a relaxation of public opinion, which has already made itself evident, and has led to measures which may impede the operations and efficiency of the squadron of observation and repression. *That this change of opinion, thus brought about, and the efforts to repair, in some way, the evils that are felt, have produced their effects upon public sentiment, is undeniable; and they may have operated also in some quarters to diminish that repugnance to the slave trade which its nature and the cruel circumstances attending it are so well adapted to inspire.* But independently of the obstructions, both physical and political, to which I have adverted, and which stand in the way of the successful operation of the squadrons of suppression, there are important considerations nearly connected with national rights, which offer still graver subjects for the consideration of this government. *The slave trade has been recognized by the nations of the earth as a lawful commerce, from the earliest period of history.* When a growing sense of its injustice became prevalent in more recent times, and induced a very general desire for its abolition, measures were proposed by the British government, and to some extent carried into operation, which, if permanently established, might have destroyed the free commercial intercourse of the world.

ART. IV.—COMMERCE—THE HARBINGER AND TEST OF CIVILIZATION.

A YEAR or two ago a series of lectures was delivered in Charleston by the Rev. Henry Dennison, whose lamented demise has been recently announced, entitled "Lectures to Business Men."

At the instance of some citizens of Charleston, and from our own conviction of the essential excellence of the discourses, we have determined to present them in this and subsequent numbers, to the readers of the Review. They are six in number :

- I. COMMERCE—THE HARBINGER AND TEST OF CIVILIZATION.
- II. RELATION OF COMMERCE TO CHRISTIANITY.
- III. COMMERCIAL ETHICS.
- IV. CORPORATIONS AND INSOLVENCIES.
- V. THE BUSINESS MAN AT HOME.
- VI. CARTHAGE—THE LOVE OF MONEY THE ROOT OF ALL EVIL.

In the course of six thousand years in which man, under the province of God, has been working out his destiny, few propositions have been more fully illustrated than that of the text.

The direct evils—luxury, sloth, intemperance—have ever followed the retention of wealth by its owners, for selfish uses ; and the greatest temporal blessings which the present condition of man fits him to receive, have always accompanied the diffusion of riches according to the requirements of charity, liberality, and commerce. To the praise of the latter, it must be confessed that up to a certain stage of their progress, those nations most famous for the extent of their trade, have also been noted for a liberal public spirit, and for general elevation of the masses of the people.

So close is the alliance between commerce and civilization, that it is difficult to say whether she bears to the latter the relation of a patient and attentive handmaid, or a loving and inseparable bride.

"A Tartar" (says that polished writer, Dr. Ferguson—*Essay on History of Civil Society*)—"A Tartar, mounted on his horse, is an animal of prey, who only inquires where cattle are to be found, and how far he must go to possess them." The monk, "who had fallen under the displeasure of Mangu Khan, made his peace by promising that the Pope and the Christian Princes should make a surrender of all their herds." This "animal of prey" derived his diary, his tent, his defence, his food, and his clothing, from the animal he rode ; and he presents to us a striking contrast with the Doge of Venice, dwelling in palaces, and celebrating every year, with gala-day and wedding-ring, his nuptials with the sea, a bountiful bride, who had brought him a dower of inexhaustible wealth. The

poetry and romance once associated with commerce were still green in the halcyon days of Venetian glory, and we can trace back the gallant devotion to the element that filled the coffers of the merchant princes of that great republic, to the memories of still older days, when the sea was worshipped as a god whose trident shook the earth; when voyages, that conferred immortality upon the mariners, were made to fabulous shores, and galleys sailed from their haven with their beaks covered with garlands, and convoyed by glittering dolphins and mermaids with pearls in their hair, and after pious sacrifices to Neptune and Æolus, that they might return laden with fabulous spoils.

A comprehensive view of civilization will consider it as embracing high attainments in government, arts, and refinement of manners; and while these have existed separately, or in very rare instances, combined in countries which have made no very great progress in commerce, they have generally been proportioned nearly to the state of the external and internal trade of the nations of the earth. For what is the chief subject of laws, but the rights of trade and property (money, static and dynamic); and who shall engage in arts, if their products are not diffused? and how can refinement be secured, but by intercourse, even *interested* intercourse—growing out of mutual want and dependence—of man with his fellows? Man, wholly independent, is but a selfish savage, a Tartar wandering in search of cattle, a Chinaman or Japanese with absolute tyranny in government, and with fossilized institutions. If he is attained to power not softened by the amenities of commercial life, he is a madman like Alexander, a splendid despot like the ancient Persian, or a universal butcher like Rome.

We might, indeed, reason from cause to effect, to show that the highest civilization is attainable only with the aid of commerce; for the qualifications of the thorough man of business, is energy, his integrity, his habit of generalization, acquired from looking at the markets of the world—his financial skill, by which the revenues of nations are collected and disbursed, his taste in the fine arts—which are the substance of his traffic, his very security—all tend to the enlightenment and elevation of the race. His employment is the diffusion of wealth, that it may not be “kept by the owners thereof, for their hurt.” The building and freighting of a single ship gives work and money to the ironmonger, the carpenter, the spinner, the weaver, the machinist, the farmer, the manufacturer, the artist, and sometimes, unfortunately, to the lawyer and the doctor, together with the day-laborer, and all in their employ, down to the most servile but indispensable occupations. But per-

haps a sketch of the history of commercial influence upon man will best illustrate my position; and to begin with an example most interesting to us, the connection being trade and government, can hardly be better exhibited than by the condition of our own country after the Revolution, and before the adoption of the present Constitution.

The old Articles of Confederation had barely sufficed for collecting the continental troops into one army, under one illustrious head, and when the pressure of a foreign war, which was the sole power of cohesion or rather of aggregation, was taken off, the elements of civil discord at once appeared, and the country passed through a darker time than when in the infancy of her existence she was at war with England. Even the great heart of Washington, which had never failed in the hour of his country's need, almost lost its hopes for the future, and its trust in the providence of God.

The injury done to our trade by the weakness of the Articles of Confederation was incalculable, and exhibits in the strongest light the acute sympathy existing between government and commerce. Says Judge Story, commenting upon the gloomy history of that disastrous period, "Our foreign commerce was not only crippled, but almost destroyed by the want of uniform laws to regulate it. Foreign nations imposed upon our navigation and trade just such restrictions as they deemed best to their own interest and policy. Our navigation was ruined; our mechanics were in a state of inextricable poverty; our agriculture was withered, and the little money still found in the country was gradually finding its way abroad to supply our immediate wants. In the rear of all this there was a heavy public debt, which there was no means to pay, and a state of alarming embarrassment in that most difficult and delicate of all relations, the relation of private debtors and creditors, threatened daily an overthrow even of the ordinary administration of justice. Severe as were the calamities of the war, the pressure of them was far less mischievous than this slow but progressive destruction of all our resources, all our industry, and all our credit."—*Story on Con.*, p. 32.

Still more significant, if possible, is the fact that our American Constitution itself, a miracle of human wisdom, *grew out of the exigencies of commerce*. The following brief history of this transaction is taken from Judge Upshur's masterly review of Story, and is quoted by Tucker—(*Constitutional Laws*, page 168): "In the year 1786 the difficulties and embarrassments under which our trade suffered, in consequence of

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del, for our power, and glory,
the history of the world it has
power, no less than the stability
twin of commerce, and the
in various ways testified their
Cesar and his fortunes were
Ptolemies in Rhodian galleys;
sued for the interposition of impe-
question, "I am indeed sovereign
a law is sovereign of the sea."

The great kingdom of Babylon,
trade of his extensive dominions
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and wiser from the lesson, gave
commerce, founded Alexandria for the
in his will for the construction of
thus succeeded in placing a garri-
for commerce, but in vain besieged
it, and ended by making a present
engines to its inhabitants, from the
made their famous Colossus, under

But in order to show the intimate

consanguinity existing between trade and an elevated condition of the human race in other respects, we are not driven to rely upon the opinions of individuals, however great or sagacious. The history of the world is luminous upon this point. A class of men *must* stand between the producer and the consumer, the manufacturer and the customer, to make products merchantable, and to transport them at whatever distance, to the market where they are to be sold and used, or else every individual or small community is deprived of all stimulus to produce or to manufacture more than is necessary for its own immediate wants.

The question is idle as to the relative importance of manufactures or commerce to a city or nation. *Both* are essential to national or civic prosperity. There can be no manufactures without a market, and no market, except that created by the limited demand, at home, without commerce. "In a country destitute of commerce," remarks McPherson, an author who had studied his subject well, "superior talents are of little value, and industry and toil in rearing a redundancy of produce is useless; a deficiency is death. But wherever commerce extends its beneficial influence, every country which is accessible is in some degree placed on a level with respect to a supply of provisions, the necessaries, the comforts, and the elegancies of life."

In looking over the history of the past, as in looking round upon the present countries of the earth, wherever we find a nation looming above the obscurity in which time lives and moves and has its being, we may be almost certain that could that nation or city be reproduced in this century, we should find the thoroughfares thronged with busy merchants, the houses crowded with tradesmen, and the harbors filled with ships.

That portion of the earth, to which all science and all history seem to point as the cradle of the human race, is not more famous for the mighty empires that lived upon its soil in the spring-tide of humanity, than for its having furnished the first illustrious examples that commerce is both the cause and the effect, the test and the harbinger, of civilization. Western Asia bore upon her honored soil, where man in his infancy walked and talked with his Maker, great Babylon—vast Nineveh, into which the prophet went three days' journey—mighty Tyre, the mother of kings—Jerusalem, under Solomon and David, the home of God—Sidon, with her jeweled palaces by the sea, and other cities scarcely less renowned, to exhibit man springing into life, like Minerva from the head of Jove, full armed, and standing by his cradle with the capacities and civiliza-

ions and luxuries which are the guerdon of his powers, and he condition of his happiness.

——— "Blest
Is he whose heart is the home of the great dead
And their great thoughts."

Let us withdraw for a while from the heat and turmoil of the present, and indulge ourselves with the coolness and stillness which dwell and refresh in the past.

It humbles and enlightens us to hear the story of those who have possessed the earth before us, especially if they have trod our paths and followed our pursuits. We may be encouraged by their success, and learn lessons from their failure, and be warned by the precursors of their destruction.

The earliest accounts of commerce we find detailed in the Bible, the oldest and most authentic history in the world. For a series of ages the records of heathen nations are so obscure, so doubtful, or so false, that they scarcely serve for a comment upon that great book, while the volume of truth tells us what it can be useful or desirable for us to know of the earliest condition and progress of the race.

Job commemorated the righteousness and the majesty of Jehovah a thousand years before Homer immortalized the exploits of his hero gods. The great ancestor of the Jewish race was powerful and enlightened upon the plains of Syria, while the history of Egypt is still enshrouded with the mists of fable and superstition. The harp of the royal Psalmist was swept to the melodies of Zion, while Corydon and Phillis piped to each other upon the tuneful reed of Pan among the pastures of Arcadia, and Memnon sounded his hollow note at the dawn of the morning to the winds that swept down from the sources of the Nile. In the 23d chapter of Genesis we find, in the purchase by Abraham of a burying-place for his family, the first account of a commercial transaction in the history of the world.

The patriarch bought for a cemetery from the children of Heth the field of Ephron, containing the cave of Machpelah, with the trees that were upon it, for four hundred shekels of silver.

The money was weighed, not counted, in the presence of witnesses, and was declared to be "current money with the merchant." The transfer of property was made at the city gates, the usual place for important business, "and the field and the cave that was therein, were made sure unto Abraham or a possession of a burying-place by the sons of Heth."

Here, then, occurs, nearly two thousand years before the

Christian era, an instance of the legal transfer of real estate, for the consideration of the payment of money or the circulating medium, which money received its market value according to the requirements of trade, from the circumstance that it was currently received as of known value, by a class of men already existing and influential, denominated *merchants*. Commerce, then, at that early period, was carried on by a particular class of men, acting under well-defined laws, and was already found indispensable to the comfort even of a nomadic people.

At this period both manufactures and commerce seem to have been further advanced in Syria, where this purchase was made, than even in Egypt. Three centuries later we find the Arabians already in possession of the carrying trade between Egypt and India, and transporting in large quantities upon camels such commodities as spices, balm, and myrrh, for preserving the dead and slaves. It was to these that Joseph was sold, his price being estimated at £2 11s. 8d., or about thirteen dollars of our currency! About the same time we find inns established in Egypt and Northern Arabia, for the accommodation of travellers, the guests furnishing their own provisions and provender.

During the residence of the Israelites in Egypt, manufactures and foreign commerce (the latter chiefly in the hands of strangers) were in a state of high perfection, and show great progress in luxury. The Pyramids, whose vastness and grandeur still astonish the world, were erected about this time, to manifest to the future the progress of the past, at a cost of centuries of time and millions of money, and doubtless with the sacrifice of thousands of lives.

A stable political government, the founding of splendid cities, and the highest attainments in science, literature, and civilization known to the ancient world, and existing side by side with the most extensive trade, illustrate the energy of human achievements, while yet the piratical ancestors of the polished Greeks infested the seas, to the terror of the merchants, and long before the mud walls of Rome were cemented by the blood of fratricide.

It would seem as if the watchful providence of God, which rules over all the nations, had other ends in view in the bondage and release, and subsequent re-settlement of the Israelites, than the mere religious discipline of that ungrateful and rebellious people. The Great Proprietor of all countries gave to the only nation that retained the knowledge and worship of *Him*, a land upon the other side of the flood that divides Africa from Asia; and their captains, Moses and Joshua, were

instructed to treat with extreme severity the wretched idolaters whom they found in possession of the territory. These were the Canaanites, better known to profane history as the *Phœnicians*; and they fled at first from the face of the chosen people, for whom God fought, to Sidon and other towns upon their coast. But finding those great emporiums of commerce already populous, the refugees embarked for distant regions and established colonies all along the shores of the Mediterranean. Thence keeping up their intercourse and trade with their mother cities, they soon absorbed the commerce of the Western world. They took with them letters and the arts, and civilization was one of the commodities with which their vessels were freighted to every sea. Cyprus, Rhodes, the island of the Ægean, the coasts of the Black Sea—lately the battle field for struggling nations, the shores of Sicily, of Sardinia of France, Spain, Portugal, Africa, and England, were dotted with their trading posts, and received their first impulse to wealth and renown from the swell of Phœnician ships that lashed their ocean boundaries. Thus the rigorous expulsion of the Canaanites not only vacated a home for the chosen people of God, but it sent forth pioneers of commerce and refinement, and bound together the most distant countries by the strong chain of a mutual interest, and a common speech and a universal law. May we not suppose that they bore with them also throughout the known world fearful rumors of the God whom the Hebrews worshipped, who had divided the Red Sea for His people, after vindicating His majesty in Egypt; who was Lord of the hills as well as the valleys and before whom their divinities were not able to stand? I was under Sesostris, king of Egypt (about 1300, A. C.) that geography began to be understood, that maps were engraved that canals were constructed, and that inland navigation originated in Egypt. Then, too, Colchis was founded, which in after-times was made famous by the expedition of Jason and his Argonauts in search of the Golden Fleece, a fable, perhaps disguising an effort to establish trade with some distant region. And about the same time flourished Midas, who, according to the poets, turned all that he touched to gold, that is, probably he gave special attention to commerce, and was successful in his speculations.

It cannot be expected that within the compass of an hour I should dwell at length upon each of those great cities established by the Phœnicians, which, as they rose in succession above the horizon, illuminated, if they did not rule the world. But a brief notice of some of them is necessary to a faithful treatment of my theme. *Sidon* appears to have been founded

some 2200 A. C. Seated upon a rocky coast between Libanus and the *Mediterranean*, it soon acquired the unrivalled trade of that sea, whose cities have been for so many ages the centre of civilization.

It was the capital port of the Phœnicians, and its inhabitants were the carriers for the world. They excelled in the manufacture of fine linen, embroidery, tapestry, metals, and glass, in which they were as expert as the moderns, blowing, turning, cutting, and carving it, and even making it into mirrors. All these were supplied to other nations in Phœnician ships, and that people were considered by the Greeks as the inventors of ship-building and navigation, of the application of astronomy to sailing, as the discoverers of important stars, naval war, the inventors of letters, arithmetic, book-keeping, weights and measures (which, as we have seen, were known to Abraham as in common use), and perhaps of money.

They monopolized the trade of the British Islands centuries before their existence were known to the Greeks, and perhaps we may still find traces of their intercourse with our ancestors in the oriental words with which our language is known to abound.

It is needless to add, that they excelled most nations of the age in the comforts and luxuries of life, that the standard of education was high among them, or that their political institutions were elaborated and secure.

When we say that commerce flourished, and the rights of property were respected, this other is already said. After Sidon had finished the course marked out by the finger of God, and, when her glory had set like the waning moon on account of her sins, her most ancient colony of *Tyre* emerged from the dark canopy of time, and for generations shed a brilliant light down the vista of coming ages, a light that would have obscured that of the parent-city in the zenith of its splendor, and which still shines faintly like a spent beacon-fire, to indicate to the student of history the unerring road to prosperity and wealth. In the 27th chapter of Ezekiel we find an account of the articles of her merchandise, which is exceedingly valuable as a transcript of the attainments made at that time in the arts of civilized life. There were sold in her markets the metals, ivory, ebony, horses, slaves, emeralds, embroidery, linen, coral, agates, precious stones, wine, wool, sheep and mules, honey and oil, balm, apparel and gold, in short, every provision for comfort that necessity could ask for or luxury could wish. The products of the world enriched her merchants and adorned her marts, until corrupted by wealth and luxury, she fell under the ban of God, joined her sister-

parent in her doom, and when Jesus would paint the horrid destruction that awaited the Jews, he could find no strong language than that their conduct and their end should be worse than those of Sidon and Tyre. Her desolation, foreshadowed in the mirror of their sin, was pronounced by the prophet, and Alexander was the divine instrument for her subversion.

Eleven hundred years before the Christian era, while Jesus the father of David, was still an obscure herdsman upon the plains of Judea, and two centuries before Homer struck the immortal lyre, the Phœnicians had the sagacity to fix up Cadiz as the chief seat of their commerce in Spain, which twenty-eight hundred years afterward, was the great entrepôt of the Spanish trade with the newly-discovered western world. Solomon's ships, manned by the enterprising navigators of Tyre, sailed in company with Tyrian vessels to Ophir and Tarshish, and returned laden with precious metals and luxuries of other climes, to support the magnificence of the Israelitish throne. A hundred years later, Rhodes, a Tyrian colony, became mistress of the sea, and again exhibiting commerce and civilization side by side, cleared the seas of pirates and gave to mankind a code of maritime laws which were generally adopted by other nations, were held in the highest respect for many ages, and contributed their share to the great fabric of laws that now protect the commerce and the property of the earth.

Carthage, the greatest of the Tyrian colonies, deserves and shall receive a lecture devoted to itself.

In later times the Corinthians and the Athenians became turn masters of the contiguous seas, and attained great excellence in commerce, sending their merchantmen to every part at the same period that Greek writers and orators were enriching the world. The laws of Solon—next to Moses, the wisest lawgiver of antiquity—protected trade, and provided a fixed rate of interest upon money at twelve per cent.

Rome, engaged in establishing military despotisms everywhere with the temple of Janus never shut, had but little leisure and less inclination for the peaceful pursuits of commercial life. The resources which commerce might have furnished were levied by her armies, who made the world tributary to her greatness. When she destroyed Carthage she had nearly destroyed commerce too; learning was confined to the privileged classes, mechanic arts were discouraged by being considered plebeian and servile, ships rotted at the docks, and arts languished, and the world was a desert, showing no sign of life but the gorgon-head of war. Even her iron empire was at last shivered by the arm of the Almighty when its destiny

was fulfilled and its work was done, and by degrees commerce arose once more from the ashes of despotism and the chaos of ignorance, and successively Venice and Genoa, and Spain and Portugal, and Holland and England, built and freighted ships to traverse every sea, and make mankind respect the mechanic and the merchant.

From this hasty sketch it will appear that that Divine Providence, in whose government of the world there is no room for chance or accident, has inseparably linked together the aspirations of the individual and the improvement of the race.

The man of business is engaged in a perpetual struggle to raise himself and his family above the regions of want and need, and every lawful acquisition that he makes not only benefits himself and them, but it adds something to the common stock of comfort and happiness that belongs to all mankind.

He may, indeed, obey only the dictates of selfishness, but whether he will or no, the world comes in for a share of the benefit. The physical profit inures to him and the world alike, but to the selfish man of business, the moral gain belongs to the world alone. The toil is his, but whatever his character, he must take his whole race into partnership in the proceeds. His ships may have borne the arts from sea to sea, and his railroads may have diffused intelligence and common charity, and his gains may have enriched his family, and his dwelling and storehouses adorned the city, but if his motive have been mere self-aggrandizement, if he had no thought in all his labors for the *common weal*, if his liberality has begun, continued, and ended, at home, his moral nature will be found to have gained nothing by the exertions of a long life. Rather it will have lost all.

It will appear dwarfed and narrowed in its dimensions in inverse ratio to the extent of his business operations. His selfishness will grow with the provision he makes for himself, and his love of money—"the root of all evil"—will keep even pace with his acquisition of wealth.

If that Providence which made us the beings that we are, has thus joined together commerce and civilization, what God has joined let no man put asunder. If the two have always existed together and aided each other, so that light has followed in the track of commerce, and barbarism has reigned where she was not; and if, on the other hand, all the arts of civilized life, all security by law of person and property, and all moral elevation, which is the only true refinement, tend to the *advancement of commerce*—if these invariably promote *and imply one another*, and if the absence of one is the other's

extinction, then is it the duty as well as the interest of the man of commerce to extend civilization, that is, as I have already defined the term, the highest attainments in government, arts, and refinement of manners. He should aim perpetually that the government of the State should be, so far as human imperfection will admit, a copy of that recorded in the Bible, by which the Almighty rules his universe.

To this end he should always go to the polls; he should bring to bear his powerful political influence in the formation and amendment of laws; and he should take care that none but the wisest and most virtuous citizens are elevated to offices of trust and profit in the commonwealth. He should frown down as the greatest enemy to our political, and therefore our commercial existence, the ruinous and dishonorable practice of *buying votes*, which is growing to the absolute destruction of the elective franchise, among us. He should also be the liberal *patron of the arts*, not only those which minister to the comforts, but those also which supply the elegancies of life, for just as commerce puts nations upon a level with respect to discoveries and improvements, so do the arts tend to that best and only practicable equalization of society, in which comfort is not one of the distinctions between the rich and the poor. Architecture, horticulture, streets, roads, internal improvements, sanitary regulations, reading-rooms, yeomans, the comfort of tenants, to these things and many more of like nature, the public spirited man of business will not fail to devote much thoughtful attention, with a view both to the welfare of his fellow-men and to the advancement of commerce itself, as well as to prevent his own moral and immortal nature from being bound up in a bundle and thrown behind his counter with his only political propensities shown in the government of his estate, its only patronage of the arts in the architecture of his own fortunes, and its only music he think of the dollars for which he has bartered his soul. Finally, the true man of business will also do all that he can for the promotion of *general refinement of manners*, a refinement based upon religious principle, where alone it is secure, healthy and virtuous in its growth, manly and elevated in its standard. He may not care much for the foppery of the ball-room, but he will frown upon and denounce the brutalizing coarseness of the tavern and the obscene exhibitions of the theatre. He may not excel in external polish and an artificial behavior, but he will be aware that the true seat of gentility is within, that manners are as much a symptom of disposition, *you may learn from the sign over a shop-door what is sold there*. Acting upon this impression, he will give much care

and labor and money for the advancement of education among all classes of society. He will insure that the minds of the future citizens and proprietors of his country are well informed; that the chief polish is placed *there*; that the youth of the land be trained upon the principles of God's Word, the only eternal foundation, with kind, loving hearts shedding upon all around the blessed influences of that charity which never failth. He should bear ever in mind that "account of his stewardship," which God will one day require of him; and if, as a wicked and slothful servant, he has buried in the earth the talents of gold, of labor, and of power, that were committed to his trust to trade with for the Master's glory, he will be bound hand and foot, and cast to the outer darkness.

ART. V.—CIVILIZATION IN ITS RELATIONS TO PROPERTY AND SOCIAL LIFE.

A TREATISE UPON CIVILIZATION, IN ITS RELATIONS TO PROPERTY; AND THE TRUE CAUSES OF SOCIAL HAPPINESS.

WHAT is to follow in this treatise, upon the grave issues presented in our caption, is directed to the frank and respectful consideration of the social theories developed and advocated in the third article of the December issue of this Review.

We purpose to take respectful ground against the social philosophy of Mr. Fitzhugh.

This gentleman is a Southern writer, and writes with both force and clearness.

His purpose is evidently correct and commendable, and it would give us pleasure, were the thing at all possible, to concur with him in opinion, when his views are presented with so much frankness and fearlessness; especially since we mutually cherish what Horace calls the "*patriosque penates*."*

In the pages of this Review, we take it, judging from the liberality of its past course, Southern writers differing substantially in their views of social science, may meet in fair and frank interchange of sentiment.

Mr. Fitzhugh holds that the white race is the very best slave race.

Now, in a certain sense, this is true, and in the same sense, in which it might be maintained that Henry Clay, or any other person of distinguished genius and intelligence, would have made the most accomplished pickpocket that ever walked

* See Satire V.

the streets of London. We hold that the white race would be the very worst slave race, for the reason that they make the very best civilized race.

We hold that although Henry Clay would have made the most accomplished body-servant in the world, yet we also hold that he would have made the very worst, because he was capable of being made the most accomplished civilian and statesman of a most enlightened nation.

It would, therefore, have been rolling back the tide of human progress, to make a man, capable of a high state of civilization, the victim of individual domination.

We hold the very best slave race to be, par excellence, the most degraded and brutalized of the race of man. We hold to the propriety of the institution of slavery; but why? Because, we say, being the very lowest and most degraded of the many necessary forms of civil government, it should be applied, as a general rule, to the most ignorant and uncivilized of the human race.

Its application to the Africans in our midst, is a wise and just one, and for the reason that they are actually and philosophically disqualified, by want of civilization and refinement, or any higher or more elevated scheme of civil control—a want inherent in their moral constitution. Hence, its institution is wise, just, moral—just as it is wise, just and moral to institute other forms of civil government *accommodated to the intelligence and civilization of the governed*; and that is its necessity. If civil government were not necessary, for causes wholly aside from civil government itself—that is to say, for the want of the necessary integrity and information among the people to act rightly voluntarily, there would be no occasion for them, and hence no justification for their introduction.

They are only introduced anywhere upon the face of this broad earth, because they are necessary to protect the highest good of the governed. And what is that highest good? It is the universal spread of honest principles and social morality, or the exclusion of all ignorance, and all duplicity and wrong.

If this highest good of the governed—*this universal spread of honest principles* and social morality, were a "*fait accompli*"—a thing obtained—civil rules with penal sanctions would manifestly be unnecessary.

Mr. Fitzhugh seems to regard civil government as the chief agent in human civilization, whereas it is only the handmaid, operating secondarily.

In order at once to enter into the middle of our subject, we proceed to inquire what is property? What is the philosophi-

cal meaning of human ownership, with respect to the productions of Nature and of God?

Any one can take an English dictionary, and soon ascertain the origin and present use of these terms, and will there find that they mean, in ordinary phrase, what Mr. Fitzhugh takes them to mean, things and persons, by which we are surrounded in this world.

It is in this sense that a man says in common conversation, "This horse, or this land, or this slave, is my property." He calls them his property, because, by a figure of speech, they are his, or his property, *in virtue of a certain relation*, legal or moral, subsisting between him and other men in respect to them.

There is a figure in rhetoric, in very common use, called metonymy.

According to this trope—wherein one word is put for another, we employ property, to imply things real and personal.

Now, aside from this trope in rhetoric, we hold that the word property, in the true and philosophical meaning of the term, does not represent the visible things of this world, but *a legal or moral relation existing with respect to these visible objects, between any one or more given men, and the residue of men.*

Property, then, is a philosophy—or, if the reader pleases, a term in philosophy—a branch of truth—a part of a system of ethics, and means, as we have said, not anything visible, not anything real, not anything personal, but the *legal or philosophical relation* subsisting between one or more persons of the family of man, and the other portion of their fellow-creatures, *with respect to* some temporal object existing in this world.

Now, when I say, "This horse, or this land, or this slave, is my property," I am to be understood as employing that metaphor in rhetoric which enables me to say, "I have read *Horace*," meaning his works; "My friend has a clear *head*," meaning his mind; "Knowledge is power;" "Faith is the substance of things hoped for," &c., &c.

This cardinal item in the account that man never creates, or originates, or begins, anything whatever, is not to be lost sight of, when we come to look at the question of human ownership.

Human ownership, we must always and consistently remember, is not only usufructuary, or the enjoyment of the temporary uses of things, that do not originate with us, but it is *essentially exclusive of other persons.*

Human ownership of the temporal gifts of nature, or of

God, is essentially transient and temporary, growing out of the transient and temporary existence of all visible and sub-
sary objects, whether human or natural.

Hence, human ownership, or human property, is essentially transient or temporary connection—a relation of time—a moral or philosophical regulation of mundane affairs.

To whom do the gifts of nature or God, as a general rule, belong? Evidently not to any particular owner, but to the race of man, from age to age, subject to the *philosophy* of social life.

Hence, it is this social philosophy that constitutes my property in my mundane possessions, whether of slaves or of land.

Hence, *individual ownership* is, as we still insist, *matter of philosophy*, matter of law, human or divine, matter of agreement or understanding, matter of relation or connection, matter of conservative wisdom, matter of social science.

In the beginning of the world, the Creator bestowed upon man, as the representative of his race, dominion over the earth, over the fish of the sea, the fowls of the air, and over every living thing.

But this *general* dominion is to be regulated by the philosophy of the social state.

Consistently with the happiness and peace of society it is impossible for us to hold all things in common. In other words, the *public welfare* is inconsistent with the *general* dominion over things.

Why this is so, is a question in theology.

Now, general dominion, or property in common, being the character of the original endowment, and this common, or non-exclusive dominion over things, being found to be inconsistent with the public welfare, for some cause or other not now to be inquired into, the next best thing to be done is to all back upon a division of things, or personal or exclusive ownership, as a system demanded by the general welfare. This system is what we call sociology.

Hence, sociology, or the science of the social state, is to be defended upon the ground that it is the next best thing, or the best thing under the circumstances, or the wisest course consistently with the ignorance and immorality of the race of man. We must bear in mind, along with this discussion, that man's property in his fellow-man is no more to be traced to be *common* or *general* dominion of things bestowed upon our race, than is our *exclusive* property in land or things personal to be so traced.

No man can consistently predicate an exclusive personal ex-

joyment of anything, to a *gift in common*. Yet how common is this error.

If I give my two children a horse, for example, *in common*, bestow a *general dominion*, neither of them can predicate upon that kind of gift a right of *exclusive* property.

If either of them have, or ever come to have, a *separate* or *exclusive* right to him, or to any particular portion of his time or uses, such exclusive right must have origin in some source, aside from *my gift*, which was only a *general one*. Hence, a *general dominion* is inconsistent with *exclusive* property.

But we hold, nevertheless, to the right of private ownership of men and things, and defend our exclusive property to each upon precisely the same ground—the ground upon which all civil government, among men is to be justified—the ground of the public welfare, or the science of the social state, or the highest wisdom in our circumstances, or the necessity of our circumstances. Hence it is that we say that property, or exclusive ownership, is a part of the philosophy of the social state. What social state? Why, the social state wherein men are admitted to be *immoral and unjust*, which qualities are known to be inconsistent with a *common* enjoyment of things.

Hence it is that I say, that it is impossible for any man to interfere injuriously or improperly with the things consecrated to my exclusive use, that is to say, with my property, so to speak, unless he interferes wrongfully with the relation (moral or legal) that subsists between me, and all men, himself included, in respect to the object of property interfered with. Hence, the *objects* of property are one thing, and property itself quite another and a different thing.

Hence, if there be any advantages accruing from the institution of private ownership among men, that advantage is attributable, not directly to the *objects* of property, but to the *law*, legal or moral, upon which the institution, as such, repose, or rather *which constitutes it*.

Hence, man's social progress is not to be attributed to the objects of property, but to property itself, or, in other words, not to the material uses of temporal things, but to the *social science*, by which temporal things are *exclusively appropriated*. We thus attribute the moral progress of man to the prevalence of the proper principles of social living.

But this question arises in a more advanced state of this discussion.

It seems paradoxical to say, that a man's property may be destroyed while the *objects* of the property may be substantially improved in condition; and yet the statement may

be philosophically true. But it can only be true upon the supposition of the existence of the distinction above taken, between *things* real and personal, and *property* in them.

In order plainly to illustrate this important distinction, I say for example, that a man may take my horse—take him out of my possession, and divest me of his uses, where he was poor, provided for and ill-treated, and may take him into his own exclusive possession, where he may be sumptuously served and yet he just as wrongfully and improperly destroys my property (in him) as though his condition had been unimproved.

A slave-thief, for example, may do the same thing with my slave, that is to say, may take him permanently out of my exclusive use and possession, and by such conduct may improve his temporal condition, and thereby utterly destroy my property in him—destroy my property, while bettering the condition of it, because he deprives me of the exclusive use of that which the law of the social state had legalized, so to say in my possession.

From this view of the matter, one or two very important consequences clearly follow :—

1. If property be the creature of law—human or divine, as we think it undoubtedly is—then every law in regard to the possession and the exclusive use of the things of this life constitutes a property in them. Hence, as there are in regard to the objects of property two kinds of laws, viz. : the human and the moral or philosophical, it follows that they may either harmonize or be in opposition.

Hence, a human lawgiver may enact a law either in harmony with, or opposed to, the science of the social state, or to the principles of morality, and hence a property may be illicitly obtained, according to a human law.

In every treatise, therefore, with respect to property, we should carefully distinguish between the uniformly binding force of the science of the social state, or the principles of justice and morality, and the regulations in respect to society *originating* in mere human wisdom.

Regulations originating in human wisdom may accord with the principles of justice and morality, as well as disagree with them.

A human law, therefore, which accords with the science of the social state, is only to be held as morally binding, or as perpetuating moral obligations or distinctions.

It will not do, however, to say, that laws arising in human wisdom and opposed to the science of the social state, impose no moral obligations. Undoubtedly they impose more

obligations; but, then, these obligations are of a peculiar character and of a temporary nature.

No laws permanently regulate the social state, but those that constitute the science of that state, and those of human enactment, in accordance therewith.

Hence, if we have nothing to advance in favor of the institution of domestic slavery, but human enactments in discord with, or in opposition to, the science of the social state, or the principles of justice and morality, no good or pure-minded man would deign to undertake its justification.

2. If property be the offspring of law, human or divine, then there can be no such thing as property in a state of nature. And why? Simply because, in a state of nature, or, as it is properly called, the wild, uncultivated, or uncivilized state, men do not submit to *any obligations*, whether of human or divine enactment.

Let us for a moment consider the cardinal distinction between a civilized and an uncivilized state, in respect to members of our race.

This leading distinction, we take to be, the knowledge or ignorance, the obedience or disobedience of the rules permanently regulating the social state.

That community of our race is civilized that apprehends and obeys one of the principles of the social state; but civilized only to the extent of that knowledge and that obedience. And, then, its advance in civilization keeps pace with the principles apprehended and obeyed. Hence is it that we say it is the principles of correct living that civilizes our race.

Civilization we must remember as a term of comparison. The people of England and France are both civilized, but civilized in different degrees. No two nations upon the face of the earth are civilized in precisely the same degree, any more than they are wise, or honest, or pious, in precisely the same degree.

We never have believed in the possibility of the existence of a purely wild or savage state, or what some men call the state of nature. We have never believed in the possibility of its existence, for the reason that we do not believe that any community of the human family can live together in society, without recognizing and obeying *some* of the principles of civilization.

It is to be noticed that just as soon as a moral obligation, even of the most obvious character, comes to be recognized and obeyed, that moment is there a transition from the wild to the civilized state. I mean, of course, a partially civilized state, because that is the only state that can be predicated of the human family.

What is perfect civilization? It is the perfect knowledge of, and perfect submission to, the principles of social living.

If there be any one principle of civilization, of which any people, the most enlightened, is ignorant, and disobeys, *that* people is uncivilized in that regard, and *to that extent*. No nation can be said to be purely wild or savage, which knows and obeys any one of the principles of the social code. The people of the United States can only be said to be but partially civilized, because it is undoubtedly true that there are persons of this nation who do not know, and who disobey, many of the most obvious principles of justice and morality.

In a certain other sense there can be no such state as a savage or wild; and this view of the matter is by no means unimportant.

We do not think it can be questioned that every coming together, or association of mankind, is permanently regulated by the *science* of the social state. What we mean by this is, that there exists for the government of the human family right or proper principles of intercourse, whether they recognize and obey them or not.

To make our position still plainer, we insist that the intercourse of the savages, of this and of every other country, for example, is morally or philosophically regulated by precisely the same social science that regulates the most polished that is, or that is yet to be, upon the face of the earth.

Hence, the only distinction between the most polite and the most savage people, arises from the fact of the superior apprehension of the science of social life, and the superior obedience to its principles by the former over the latter.

There is, therefore, ethically or morally, no exemption for any portion of the family of man, however brutalized they may be, from their obligation to behave properly in the social state—and to behave properly in that regard, means to know and to obey the science of social living.

Now, assuming it to be true that the intercourse of men and women is regulated by a science which civilizes, it follows that there can be no social intercourse not so regulated, and in his sense there can be no wild or savage state.

But yet there may be a savage state in another and a different sense. As, for example, when men do not understand, and do not therefore obey, the principles of justice and morality. Mr. Fitzhugh's main proposition is, that "land monopoly," or, says he, "to express the idea more accurately, the power exercised by capital over labor, begets and sustains civilization."

Now, in the first place, land monopoly is only a different

phrase to convey the idea of exclusive ownership of land, and certainly it cannot be maintained that exclusive ownership of land is more conducive to civilization than other things exclusively owned, or exclusive ownership of other things. And, besides, the whole question depends upon the *rules*, according to which land is monopolized. If land be monopolized according to false social principles, as it is done in England under the law of entailments, or as it was done by the Church, by alienation in mortmain, or as is done in Russia by the nobles, the result is *prejudicial* to civilization. If land be appropriated or monopolized *according to wise principles*, those *wise principles* will conduce to the advance of the public in civilization, or the scale of being, and not the lands monopolized or their monopoly. The power exercised by capital over labor is a power to be watched and guarded. It is, when not so guarded, what Horace calls

"Bellua multorum capitum,"*

and which we translate, "a monster of many heads."

And now, while I have my reader's attention directed to this admirable satire, let me say to him that the principles for which I am now contending, may be plainly gathered from the philosophy of this ancient poet and facetious satirist. For example, he says at line 41 of this letter,

"Virtus est, vitium fugere; et sapientia prima
Stultitiâ caruisse,"

which, being *liberally* translated, means that we must not attach too much importance to land and capital, but to the *principles of social ethics*, according to which they are used and employed. Or the reader may translate them literally, and make them say that it is virtue to avoid vice, and the first wisdom to have been free from folly.

At line 60 is that admirable lesson quoted by Walpole on a memorable occasion :

"Hic murus æneus esto, 3
Nil conscire sibi, nulla pallescere culpa,"

a thing to be observed as well by state as by individuals.

And this philosophy he sums up in the last three lines of this letter, which are admirable, with the exception of the vulgar joke contained in the last five words.

Mr. Fitzhugh, it would seem, if we are fortunate enough fully to comprehend him, reckons material prosperity as the chief good of the state. Looking at this material prosperity in

* See Epistle I. to Mæcenas.

that light, he then contends as a corollary that slavery, as contrasted with free society, is the wiser and better agent of civilization.

Although he says that domestic slavery is not of itself civilizing, "does not beget it,"—not civilizing without land monopoly, and land monopoly is slavery to capital, he yet contends that slavery to capital is only beneficial under certain circumstances. His final conclusion is, that "too much liberty is the great evil of our age, and the vindication of slavery the best corrective of the spirit of lawless licentiousness that threatens to subvert society." Now, in opposition to this, we are rather inclined, with unaffected diffidence, to contend that the great evil of our age is too little liberty and too great licentiousness.

In order to settle the point in dispute, we will have to define the term with respect to which the issue is raised.

What is civil liberty? It is the liberty of doing as we please in all things not prohibited by the civil law.

Blackstone's definition of civil liberty is sound to the core; and he defines it to be, natural liberty so far restrained as may be demanded by the public good; plainly thereby admitting that *natural* liberty is a liberty to be restrained—a restraint demanded by the public good—in other words, a bad, or dangerous, or licentious liberty.

It is the exercise of this kind of liberty that we slaveholders object to, upon the part of the people of the Northern States.

The civil law with us, enacted by competent or regularly constituted lawful authority, plainly prohibits any interference with the institution of domestic slavery, by which property in our slaves may become insecure, or their fidelity impaired, or debauched.

The people of the North have the *natural* liberty to molest these civil regulations to our injury if they choose. It is this *natural* liberty that our *civil* law has restrained. Hence they have no *civil* liberty to molest them. Hence, when they molest them, they exercise a bad, or dangerous, or licentious liberty. Blackstone would say, to them, although you have the *natural* liberty to do as you please, yet that kind of liberty is to be restrained by civil laws, in order to have civil liberty, and civil liberty consists in doing everything *not prohibited by the civil law*; and since the civil law *prohibits you* from injuriously interfering with the institution of domestic slavery, it would be a licentious or bad natural liberty that would enable you to do what the civil law prohibits. Civil liberty demands of you to obey the civil law. Natural liberty enables you to disobey it. Natural liberty becomes a bad liberty, the very moment it

is restrained by a civil law, enacted by any lawfully constituted legislative authority. It is moral to obey, and immoral to disobey such a law, and this law the people of the North disobey. The conclusion I leave to others to deduce.

I have always admired the definition of civil liberty given by Blackstone.

Hence, under this definition of civil liberty, the best form of civil rule is that which *sufficiently* or *wisely restrains natural liberty*.

Hence, men's natural liberty is not to be causelessly disturbed or impaired, but only usefully or beneficially.

This liberty—a liberty to do either right or *wrong*—is sufficiently or wisely restrained when men are compelled, by pains and penalties that accompany civil law, to the observance of those general rules that preserve the public peace, and uphold the public morality.

Between social and civil liberty there is a marked distinction, which we desire the reader particularly to notice.

Social liberty is the liberty of acting in accordance with the principles of social life *voluntarily*. It is distinguished favorably from civil liberty, from the fact that there are coercive penalties, and pains of body and estate, attached to the latter, that have no relevancy to the former.

What we desire the civil government to do, in any community of which we are a member, is so to overrule the *natural* liberty, that men have to obey or disobey the principles of justice and morality, by such bodily pains and penalties as thereby to *compel them* to observe a sufficient number of the rules of social life to render society peaceful and moral.

Hence, we do not want civil government to touch any one who is disposed to be a socialist; that is, to obey the science of the social state voluntarily.

What we want civil government to do, is to make haste to get away from the ways and affairs of men whenever it can do so, without detriment to the public welfare.

Hence, according to these observations, it is the merest contradiction in terms to speak of the *best form of civil government*. It is impossible, in the very nature of things, for any form of *civil rule* to be *positively* the best, for the reason, that the best form of social government is the prevalence of social science *voluntarily* obeyed.

All civil government is undeniably an evil, and only made necessary by the evil passions and ignorance of our race.

There may be, we cheerfully concede, best civil governments *comparatively*; that is to say, best civil governments for particular people and particular periods.

Republican government may be, and doubtless is, comparatively, the best for the enlightened people of this country but how would it do for the ignorant Africans? Would it be the *best* for them? Clearly not. They are too ignorant and wild.

The best form of civil rule for men low down in the scale of being, is the despotic, or monarchical. Even slavery itself which we cannot but regard as comparatively the least commendable of the many forms of civil government, is the best under certain circumstances and for certain peoples. It is manifestly and clearly the best form of civil rule for the Africans of this nation, *one and all*.

Civil government must be accommodated to the intelligence and virtue of the community to be subjected to it.

I admire republican governments—governments of constitutional checks and balances—exceedingly; but, nevertheless enlightened as I take many of the nations of Europe to be, I should be slow to recommend it to their adoption. I should fear that they were not sufficiently advanced in the science of the social state, as voluntarily to obey them, in the absence of a more despotic civil authority.

Accordingly, as men in social communities are civilized (and by civilization I mean the knowledge of, and the disposition to obey, the science of social intercourse, on the principles of morality and justice), so should civil rule be lenient or constitutional.

Governments should relax—and so will, as a general rule—from the iron despotism of a single will, or individual domination, so absolutely necessary in communities in but a small degree removed from a state of barbarism—submitting to constitutional checks and balances in proportion to the civilization of the governed.

Let us now turn our attention to consider the origin and value of the objects of property.

In the first place, we are to remark that man, beside being endowed with capacity to apprehend truth, is also the creature of passions or affections.

These affections are pleased instinctively with possession of the visible objects of this world.

We all want to possess and enjoy the things that gratify the several senses; and such is our selfishness, we all want them to the exclusion of the other legatees.

Hence arise conflicts of wants, the collision of opposing interests, and the consequent clash of *brute* force.

Here we have the cause and the origin of property and of civil laws.

If these opposing desires could have been settled in accordance with social ethics, by amicable agreement, we never should have heard of either civil government or laws of exclusive ownership. But because these conflicts could not be so settled, in consequence of the ignorance and selfishness of men, civil government, representing the physical strength of the majority, and laws of property, or principles of exclusive ownership, representing their opinions with respect to justice, enforced by bodily pains and penalties, became an *absolute necessity*, demanded by the public welfare.

If, therefore, the public welfare had not imperiously demanded their interposition, civil governments would never have been instituted among men. From the foregoing remarks we draw the final conclusion, which is, that the objects of property, or, if you please, the temporal and exclusive possession of the things of this life, have no direct or inherent tendency to civilize or improve our race, or elevate it in the scale of being.

Of themselves, or aside from the principles that regulate their ownership, they have as strong a tendency to corrupt as to ameliorate.

What makes worldly things of use in the affairs of human progress, is, not their possession, or exclusive dominion, but *the principles of social life that cluster around them*, and which, without worldly objects of desire, would have no place in the ways and affairs of men.

ART. VI.—BISHOP CAPERS AND THE METHODIST CHURCH.

WITHOUT any of the spirit of sectarianism, it is our delight to set forth the virtues of those of every faith, who illustrate, in their daily walks and avocations, Christian life, whether viewed from a Catholic or Protestant standpoint, or from the standpoint of any of the orthodoxies and heterodoxies which so fatally divide and break up the Christian world.

It is on this account that we are happy to procure a copy of the interesting volume which Dr. Wightman, president of Wofford College, S. C., has issued from the press, entitled, "Life of Wm. Capers, D. D., one of the Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, including an Autobiography."

For nearly half a century the name of Wm. Capers, in the humblest, as in the most exalted duties of the Christian ministry, has been *treasured in the hearts* of the vast community *who make up the Methodist Church*; and in a more especial

manner has it been treasured by those of us at the South, whose fortune it was to be thrown immediately within the sphere of his labors, to gather wisdom from his precepts, and virtue from his example. A Christian, a scholar, and a gentleman, he knew how to temper the duties of the church with those of the world, and to reconcile the claims of patriotism and society with the sterner and the usually too uncompromising ones of the pulpit. Such men deserve a place in civil, as in religious history, and we shall be in no danger of trespassing upon forbidden ground, in glancing through their biographies, or in making appropriate reflections and extracts as we pass. It would be so, were there not in our case personal feelings to be gratified; for among the earliest recollections of our boyhood, are the polished brow, the whitened locks, and the silvery notes of Dr. Capers, as, Sabbath after Sabbath, they presented themselves in the sanctuary that we were required by parental solicitude to attend, much against our own inclinations, which the rather would have run riot among the trees, the bird's-nests, and high grass of the churchyard which adjoined, and gave practical point to the text, that all human things are vanity. If not improved by the teaching, we still learned to revere the teacher, and have ever since been gladdened by reports of his growing fame and his extending usefulness.

Dr. Capers was the son of a Revolutionary worthy, Major William Capers, who served with Marion and Moultrie, but has been overlooked in the several histories of the times, with the exception of a casual mention in the notes of Chancellor James. This is a fate not uncommon with many who were among the boldest and stanchest and most uncompromising of the patriots of that day. Dr. Capers tells us that the Butlers of South Carolina are in this category; but the list might be greatly extended. There is scarcely an old family but can supply from its own traditions much that history has overlooked. The present writer is descended from one of those families which emigrated to South Carolina almost coeval with the first settlement at Port Royal, and which, in the Revolution, gave, in an humble way, patriot after patriot to the country's service, whose names and deeds have furnished the material of family disquisitions at many a hearthstone, but have, unfortunately, never been intrusted to the surer custody of the historian. It has been told in particular how his maternal grandfather, William Norton, with a trusty and ever-faithful slave at his side, served during several years of the war in this exploit of daring and in that; how he repaired to Charleston, and was present at the siege, and how, after its

fall, being among the prisoners, he was attacked with small-pox, and his life preserved by the efforts of a heroic sister, who, with a boat and hands, hastened from her plantation to the city, and asked and obtained from the royal authorities the custody and keeping of her brother. This and the like are among the traditions that come down like heir-looms; yet nowhere, in any of the books, or records, or published lists of any sort, has it been possible to find mention of his name. But what, after all, are such vain traditions in a practical age like ours? As Juvenal meanly says, *Quæ faciunt stemmata?*

There are passages in Bishop Capers's Autobiography which we mark for reference. His account of the scenes of his childhood is often touching and beautiful, and illustrates very strikingly the simplicity of his character. Referring to these scenes, and to the constraint which is sometimes laid upon children, he indulges in a very pretty digression.

"And I say now, let the children be children. Let them have their plays in their own way, and choose them for themselves. We only spoil it by interfering. And I say more: away with all sickly sentimentalism, and the cruelty of unnatural constraint. What a deprivation it would have been to me at Belle Vue to have been refused my traps because it was cruel to catch the birds! But I had my traps, and never dreamed of any cruelty in the matter. My father made the first one for me, and taught me how to make them, and how to set them, and to choose proper places for them. But he never made a cage for me, nor did I ever want him to make one. God had given me the birds to eat, if I could catch them; but not to shut them up in cages, where they could do me no good. No artificial cases of conscience were made for me. I loved the birds. I loved to see their pretty feathers, and to hear them sing; but I loved to taste of their flesh still better. And I might do so as inoffensively as a cat, for anything I was taught. The use gave the measure of right in the case. Such as I could not eat I would not catch. And I hate this day the mawkish philosophy, which gives to the birds the sympathy due to the children. Let the children be free and active. Let them have a mind and will. And let them have a parent's gentle, faithful guidance: neither the ill-judging weakness, which is ever teasing them with interjections that mean nothing; nor the false refinement which, while it must have the birds go free to carol in the groves, makes caged birds of the little children; nor the tyranny of constraining them out of all their simple gleeful nature, to behave like old people."

On page 53, we have a description of one of those remarkable assemblages of the olden time, which our Methodist friends entitle, *camp-meeting*, and which have furnished scenes to baffle the skill of Hogarth, and puzzle not a little psychologist and physiologist alike. The one in 1802, he thus describes:

"What was most remarkable, both at this camp-meeting, and the following one a year afterward (1803), as distinguishing them from much more later camp-meetings, was the strange and unaccountable bodily exercises which prevailed there. In some instances, persons who were not before known to be at all religious, or under any particular concern about it, would suddenly fall to the ground, and become strangely convulsed with what was called the jerks; the head and neck, and sometimes the body also, moving backward and forward with spasmodic violence, and so rapidly, that the plaited hair of a woman's head might be heard

crack. This exercise was not peculiar to feeble persons, nor to either sex, but, on the contrary, was most frequent to the strong and athletic, whether man or woman. I never knew it among children, nor very old persons. In other cases, persons falling down would appear senseless, and almost lifeless, for hours together; lying motionless at full length on the ground, and almost as pale as corpses. And then, there was the jumping exercise, which sometimes approximated dancing; in which several persons might be seen standing perfectly erect, and springing upward, without seeming to bend a joint of their bodies. Such exercises were scarcely, if at all, present among the same people at the camp-meeting of 1806."

The Doctor could not but recognize the "workings of God's grace" on all these extraordinary manifestations, exhibiting, in this respect, an extent of faith which unhappily is not vouchsafed to an "outside barbarian."

Among his fellow-students at the South Carolina College, Dr. Capers mentions the honored names of Chancellor Harper, Josiah Evans, William J. Grayson, William T. Brantly, etc. At the mention of this last named, it becomes us to drop a precious tear. He was our friend and preceptor, and the lessons of morality and wisdom which for several years were distilled from his eloquent lips into our ear, were not altogether wasted, but set us hope, upon barren soil. He was a man of massive intellect, and a great dialectician. In the discussion of pure metaphysics we have never met his equal. He seemed to grapple with the subject before him with the strength of Hercules, and with the skill of Socrates. Analysis and synthesis were his especial shield and sword, and in the command of the pure, rich old English, undefiled, he was rarely matched on any arena. In force and fullness it was truly Johnsonian. In history, too, he was entirely at ease, but in mathematics, and languages, which he sometimes affected, there were deficiencies that even a casual student might at times detect. In the pulpit he was ornate and profound, though but few of his sermons have been published, and these we have in a small volume, present from himself, which has furnished pleasure to us in many an hour. Worthy old Doctor! How well do we recall those hours which are never to return, when your large, and somewhat ungainly figure, would be seen in the chapel, and in the recitation and lecture halls of the old Charleston College; when our shortcomings would be chided by your naturally ascetic nature, but when your large and noble heart would never be ready to forgive and to forget, and to reward, where any merit seemed to disclose itself! How many of thy eccentricities will linger among the traditions of that college. Not soon, in particular, will the class of 1843 forget your parting admonitions, which, at their request, were thrown by you into *sermon*, and delivered in the First Baptist Church, from the

text, "God made man perfect; but they have sought out many inventions." We are wandering.

In the course of his autobiography, Bishop Capers refers to some of those remarkable characters, who may be found in many parts of the South to shame our abolition brethren, and who are denominated "black preachers." The account of Henry Evans, of North Carolina, exhibits one of these.

"Henry Evans was confessedly the father of the Methodist Church, white and black, in Fayetteville, and the best preacher of his time in that quarter, and was so remarkable, as to have become the greatest curiosity of the town; insomuch, that distinguished visitors hardly felt that they might pass a Sunday in Fayetteville without hearing him preach. Evans was from Virginia; a shoemaker by trade, and, I think, was born free. He became a Christian and a Methodist quite young, and was licensed to preach in Virginia. While yet a young man, he determined to remove to Charleston, S. C., thinking he might succeed best there at his trade. * * * This determined him to stop in Fayetteville; and he began to preach to the negroes, with great effect. The town council interfered, and nothing in his power could prevail with them to permit him to preach. He then withdrew to the sand-hills, out of town, and held meetings in the woods, changing his appointments from place to place. No law was violated, while the council was effectually eluded; and so the opposition passed into the hands of the mob. These he worried out, by changing his appointments, so that when they went to work their will upon him, he was preaching somewhere else. * * * Happily for him, and the cause of religion, his honest countenance and earnest pleadings were soon powerfully seconded by the fruits of his labors. One after another began to suspect their servants of attending his preaching, not because they were made worse, but wonderfully better. The effect on the public morals of the negroes, too, began to be seen, particularly as regarded their habits on Sunday, and drunkenness. And it was not long before the mob was called off, by a change in the current of opinion, and Evans was allowed to preach in town. At that time, there was not a single church edifice in town, and but one congregation (Presbyterian), who worshipped in what was called the State-house, under which was the market; and it was plainly Evans, or nobody, to preach to the negroes. Now, too, of the mistresses, there were not a few, and some masters, who were brought to think that the preaching, which had proved so beneficial to their servants, might be good for them also; and the famous negro preacher had some whites as well as blacks to hear him. Seats, distinctly separated, were at first appropriated to the whites, near the pulpit. But Evans had already become famous, and these seats were insufficient. Indeed, the negroes seemed likely to lose their preacher, negro though he was, while the whites, crowded out of their appropriate seats, took possession of those in the rear. Meanwhile, Evans had represented to the preacher of Bladen Circuit, how things were going, and induced him to take his meeting-house into the circuit, and constitute a church there. And now, there was no longer room for the negroes in the house when Evans preached; and for the accommodation of both classes, the weather-boards were knocked off, and sheds were added to the house on either side; the whites occupying the whole of the original building, and the negroes those sheds as a part of the same house. Evans's dwelling was a shed at the pulpit end of the church. * * * It was my practice to hold a meeting with the blacks in the church, directly after morning preaching, every Sunday. And on the Sunday before his death, during this meeting, the little door between his humble shed and the chancel where I stood, was opened, and the dying man entered for a last farewell to his people. He was almost too feeble to stand at all, but supporting himself by the railing of the chancel, he said: 'I have come to say my last word to you. It is this: None but Christ. Three times I have had my life in jeopardy for preaching the gospel to you. Three times I have broken the ice on the edge of the water, and swam across the Cape Fear, to preach the gospel to you. And now, if in my last hour, I could trust to that, or to any-

hing else but Christ crucified, for my salvation, all should be lost, and my soul perish for ever."

Bishop Capers, in speaking of his second marriage, which followed rather sooner than is justified by public opinion upon the decease of his first wife, passes a beautiful and touching compliment to the departed lady, and, at the same time, very ingeniously and happily justifies his course :

"If the opinion were true which I have heard expressed, that a second wife is a supplanter, and in contracting a second marriage, one forgets the former wife, or loses his affections for her, transferring it to the supplanter; or if only that to marry a second wife, implies such an interference with the affections as is inconsistent with the most tenderly cherished love and affection for the dead, could never have been married a second time, nor could ten years have prepared me for the unnatural revulsion. I did not believe so, nor did I feel so. It was alike natural and sincere for me to weep for the dead or solicit a living wife; and the woman should have had not my affection but abhorrence, who should have come to my arms as a supplanter. Anna was enshrined in my heart never to be dispossessed; and the wife I solicited, was not to dispute her title to her burying-place. And yet, I repeat, I solicited the hand of Miss McGill as sincerely as I had done that of Miss White; and I loved to talk of my dear Anna to her. I loved to tell her how she must have loved to know her, as her own soul's sister; as I have since told her, how I shall love to introduce them when we meet together in heaven. Nature's secrets are not to be disclosed in words; but so simple was my heart, so sincere my conduct, that one of my first cares, after my second marriage, was to introduce Mrs. Capers to my mother (Anna's mother) as her daughter. I knew she could never doubt my love for her deceased."

The foster-mother of Mrs. Capers had designed making her the heir of her fortune, which was large, but was prevented by the sudden approach of death, and by a course of conduct upon the part of the daughter's husband, which, though honorable to his character as a man and a Christian, may yet be open to exception, in a worldly point, since there are duties to be performed to the living as to the dead. We give his own account of it.

"The second physician was Dr. John Wragg, a nephew of my second mother; and suspecting something, probably, he asked me at the first moment we were alone after seeing her, if she had a will, or wished to alter one; and on being told how the matter was, urged me instantly to send for a lawyer. But it could not be. She had been trifled with to within two hours of her consciousness in life, and I owed her too much to take up those two hours at the threshold of eternity with a lawyer; and I owed myself too much to allow a suspicion to attach to me that I had brought her to my house in a dying condition to filch her property. When her situation was made known to her, the will came first to her mind. But I was at her bedside for another purpose, and claimed her thoughts for Christ and his salvation; and several times afterward, when scarcely able to articulate, she tried to say something about that will."

A very amusing incident is narrated on page 216 of the *autobiography*, which will recall to the mind of every *South-western* reader many that are not unlike:

"I was holding a love-feast for them, and Cæsar, an elderly African, spoke with great animation of a good meeting he had had across the river, at which somebody had agreed to join the Church, and was now present for that purpose. And when he had sat down, it being time to conclude the service, I asked him if I had understood him rightly, as saying that he had brought some one to join the Church.

"Yes, sir," answered he, briskly, 'dat da him.'

"But did you not say, old man, that she was a Baptist?"

"Yes, sir, e Bapty."

"But why don't she stay with her own people?"

"Here he arose, and putting himself in an oratorical posture, he proceeded thus:

"You see, sir, ober we side de riber (river), some Bapty and some Metody. An de Bapty, dem say de ting tan (stand) so (motioning to the left), and de Metody, we say e tan so (motioning to the right). An so me and Bro. Tom, we bin hab meetin; and one Bapty broder bin da, and dis sister bin da. An me talk pon um, an de Bapty broder talk pon um; and him talk and me talk long time. An ater (after) dis sister set down da long time, an yeddy (hear) we good fasin (fashion), e tell me say, 'Bro. Cæsar, me tink you right.' Me say, 'Ki, sister, you say you tink me right? Me know me right.' So, sir, you see me bring um to you fuh (for) join Church. An you know, sir, de Scrippter say, de strongis dog, let um hole (hold) fuh."

"And who might have been the weaker dog where Cæsar was the stronger one?"

We have not space, however, for extending these extracts. Dr. Wightman, at the request of the family, and with abundant material in his possession, completes the biography, and in a masterly manner develops the career of Dr. Capers in its connection with that of the Methodist Church, of which he is himself so bright an ornament. The task is performed ably and modestly. In the tenth chapter he refers to the centennial celebration which was held by the Methodists of the Union, and to the great results which followed. We were at the time a youth, undergoing instruction at Cokesbury, which was then a manual labor school, though the *labor* part of it proved to be no little of a farce *in practice*, whatever it might be in theory, and heard in the immense camp-ground adjoining, where from five to ten thousand people were assembled, a sermon which lasted between two and three hours, and which, in gorgeous imagery, eloquent description, and deep pathos, we have never heard excelled. It is due to Dr. Wightman to say, that this sermon was delivered by himself. What he says of old Cokesbury we extract, in memory of it and in its honor:

"This institution, which is under the control of the South Carolina Conference, has had an eminently useful and popular career. Among its rectors stand the names of instructors of high reputation in their profession. The munificence of Mr. George Holloway, a Methodist gentleman of comfortable property, who died, leaving no children, has given an endowment to the school, which secures the education and board of eight or ten sons of ministers of the South Carolina Conference, the preference being given to the sons of deceased or superannuated preachers. A long line of useful results will hand down to posterity his honored name as a public benefactor."

As a specimen of Dr. Wightman's best style, and in honor of Dr. Bascom, who was considered by Henry Clay the first orator of America, we extract the following :

"His fervid genius delighted to vivify and incarnate its thoughts with the force and in the form of scenic representation. And in this he supposed he was carrying with him the sympathies of the general mind of the country, even though it might be at the expense of disappointing the fastidiousness of cultivated taste. Even a poet may have too much imagination, as was the case with Spenser. The 'Fairy Queen' is a series of glittering tableaux, each the most beautiful of all scene-painting in our language and literature ; but, by their very brilliancy and rapid succession, complicating and interfering with the thread of the story ; and leaving at last something of a confused impression of the whole upon the reader's mind. While in South Carolina, Dr. Bascom received the attentions of leading gentlemen both in Charleston and Columbia—men who, in point of manners, were peers of princes. In company with them he maintained a noble and graceful ease, as though he had been dandled on the knee of affluence, and had mixed with titled society from his boyhood. This is mentioned merely to correct an impression of a different kind sought to be made since his death."

The destiny of the Methodist Church is thus depicted by one who may assuredly be regarded one of its most enthusiastic adherents :

"The Methodist itinerancy furnishes the trained discipline, the almost military economy, the rapid combinations, and central efficiency of a system of camp-meetings, circuits, presiding elders' districts, and Annual Conference organizations—the simplicity, directness, and vigor of evangelic aggression ; and the oversight of a general Episcopal superintendency, directing, encouraging, animating the whole apparatus of men and measures, and pushing the missionary column in the direction claimed by the strongest emergency. Here are bishops who, to the sagacity, wisdom, and veneration, obtained from years of service, add the vigor of hardy pioneers, who ride on horseback a thousand miles on a stretch, along the frontier of civilized life. It has been said of the Methodism of fifty years ago, that 'it had no ruffles or lawn sleeves that it cared to soil, no lovelocks that it feared to disorder, no buckles it was loath to tarnish. It lodged roughly, and it fared scantily. It trumped up muddy ridges, it swam or forded rivers to the waist ; it slept on leaves or raw deer-skin, and pillowed its head on saddle-bags ; it bivouacked among wolves or Indians ; now it suffered from ticks or mosquitoes—it was attacked by dogs, it was hooted, and it was pelted—but it thrived.'"

The discussions which so unfortunately crept into the Church upon the subject of slavery, and which at last resulted in a Northern and Southern section, are given at large in the volume before us, and will be found very interesting. The declaration of the Southern Churches was presented by Dr. Longstreet, and was as follows :

"The delegates of the Conferences in the slaveholding States take leave to declare to the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, that the continued agitation of the subject of slavery and abolition in a portion of the Church, the frequent action on that subject in the General Conference, and especially the extra-judicial proceedings against Bishop Andrew, which resulted, on Saturday last, in the virtual suspension of him from his office as Superintendent, must produce a state of things in the South which renders a continuance of the jurisdiction of that General Conference over these Conferences inconsistent with the success of the ministry in the slaveholding States."

Dr. Capers spoke eloquently in its defence :

" 'Never, never,' said he, 'have I suffered, as in view of the evil which this measure threatens against the South. The agitation has begun there; and I tell you that though our hearts were to be torn from our bodies, it could avail nothing when once you have awakened the feeling that we cannot be trusted among the slaves. *Once you have done this, you have effectually destroyed us.* I could wish to die sooner than live to see such a day. As sure as you live, there are tens of thousands, nay, hundreds of thousands, whose destiny may be perilled by your decision on this case. When we tell you that we preach to a hundred thousand slaves in our missionary field, we only announce the beginning of our work—the beginning openings of the door of access to the most numerous masses of slaves in the South. When we add that there are two hundred thousand now within our reach who have no gospel unless we give it to them, it is still but the same announcement of the beginnings of the opening of that wide and effectual door, which was so long closed, and so lately has begun to be opened, for the preaching of the gospel by our ministry, to a numerous and destitute portion of the people. Oh, close not this door! Shut us not out from this great work, to which we have been so signally called of God."

But we must close our extracts with two more only of the many topics which we had marked. The first is in regard to the general labors and character of Dr. Capers, and the last in relation to the religious instruction of the Southern slaves, a subject of the greatest interest to us all.

" 'Bishop Capers,' says Dr. Wightman, 'has left behind him no literary monument save the Autobiography prefixed to his memoir, the Catechisms for the negro missions, and Short Sermons and True Tales for children, written for the *Sunday School Visitor*, and since his death published in a neat little volume, by Dr. Summers. He was formed in the vigorous school of active life, and the incessant travel and constant preaching of his earlier years left him no time for the severer studies which are necessary to successful authorship in the fields of theology, metaphysics, or moral science. This early contact with the practical realities of life, while it fostered the energy by which he forced his way to eminence and usefulness, was unpropitious to scholarly habits. He was one of the master-spirits of the second generation of Southern Methodists; a worthy successor of Aabury, Hull, Humphries, and Daugherty; intrepid, whole-hearted, well-poised, strong in influence that had been nobly won by great labors; a doer of things worthy to be written; inheriting a dignity unapproached by him who has merely written things worthy to be read. Having applied the activities of life to the loftiest uses, he has passed into the City of God, where, in the domain of spirits for ever blessed and glorified, those activities will ever move on,

"While life, and thought, and being last,
Or immortality endures."

MISSIONS TO THE BLACKS.—Upon this subject we extract largely from the Biography :

"In the autumn of the preceding year, after his return from England, Mr. Capers was waited on by the Hon. Charles C. Pinckney, a gentleman who had a large planting interest on Santee, to ascertain whether a Methodist exhorter could be recommended to him as a suitable person to oversee his plantation. Mr. Pinckney stated, as the reasons for this application, Mr. Capers's known interest in the religious welfare of the colored population, and the fact that the happy results which had followed the pious endeavors of a Methodist overseer on the plantation of one of his Georgia friends, had directed his attention to the subject. Soon after, Col. Lewis Morris and Mr. Charles Baring, of Pon Pon, united in a similar request. These were gentlemen of high character, who thus took the initiative in a course of missionary operations which may justly

be termed the glory of Southern Christianity. They were members of the Protestant Episcopal Church, but availed themselves of the earliest opening which the peculiar itinerant organization of the Methodist Church afforded, for furnishing religious instruction to their slaves at the hands of men deemed competent and safe in the judgment of Mr. Capers.

"The position of the plantation negroes on the river-deltas of the low country is peculiar. In this malarial region very few white families are found. Churches are, of course, very scarce; and apart from special arrangements made for the religious improvement of the blacks by the planters, there is no access, in many instances, to any of the agencies of the organized Christianity of the country. Originally brought from Western Africa, the most ignorant and degraded portion of the realm of Paganism; enslaved, many of them, in their fatherland; victims of debasing superstitions; what recuperative element was there to be found in their condition? That inscrutable providence of God, whose march through the centuries is apparently slow, but with unerring tread and in the right direction, seems to have overruled the cupidity of the British slave-traders, and allowed an exodus of hundreds of thousands of Africa's children to the shores of this country, where, under the mild form of servitude known in the Southern States, they contribute to the feeding and clothing of the world, and are at the same time environed with the light and saving influences of Christian civilization. Unfit for political freedom, unable to govern themselves; put by color and caste, as well as by intellectual inferiority, beyond the possibility of any future absorption into the dominant white race, their condition requires but one additional element to render it, in their present circumstances, in the South, the best that appears attainable by them—and that is, religious instruction adapted to their mental capabilities. Much has been said or 'shrieked,' by traders in philanthropy, concerning the 'chattel' into which the negro has been transformed by Southern legislation. The fact, however, remains unaltered, that Southern law considers the slave a *person*, treats him as possessed of *ethical* character, and protects him as fully, in his place, as it does his master in *his*. And public opinion freely concedes that moral capabilities and an immortal destiny righteously demand moral cultivation, religious opportunities—in a word, the gospel, which is the chartered right of the poor, and the precious boon of the 'bond' as well as the free. The master is under obligation to have his servant taught the duties he owes to God and man. This is one of the responsibilities involved in the relation between the parties; and from this responsibility there is no escape while the relation exists, and while the sanction of the New Testament is claimed for it.

"Nearly a generation has passed away since the commencement of these missionary operations among the blacks. It is interesting to trace their expansion and results through a quarter of a century. That there has been a large development is proved by the statistics published from year to year by the *Missionary Society*. In 1833 two additional mission stations were established. In 1834, they numbered six; in 1835, eight; in 1836, nine; in 1837, ten; and ten years afterward, viz., in 1847, there were seventeen missions, served by twenty-five efficient preachers of the Conference. At the death of Bishop Capers, there were twenty-six missionary stations in South Carolina, on which were employed thirty-two preachers. The number of Church members at that time was 11,546 on these mission stations. The missionary revenue of the Conference had risen from \$399 to \$25,000. These are very substantial results, so far as statistics go.

"Beyond all this, several important consequences may be observed. That the religious sentiment of the country should be directed, clearly and strongly, in favor of furnishing the colored population with the means of hearing the gospel of their salvation, and of learning their duty to God and their accountability in a future life, is a very cheering aspect of the whole subject. The history of these missions brings out the fact that the Christian minister has been welcomed on the plantations; that chapels have been built; liberal contributions been furnished by the planters; master and servant are seen worshipping God together: the spirit of Christian light and love has reacted upon the one, while it has directly benefited the other. How important is a growing public sentiment which shows itself in such aspects as these!

"We may notice, moreover, the positive influence of Christianity upon the negro population. It is confidently believed, that Christian influence has made itself felt in the conscience, conversation, and life of thousands of the blacks. A vast deal of ignorance has been in the way, on the part of the old negroes; many superstitious notions, many fixed habits of immorality, have opposed barriers to the entrance of the word of God to the inner man. The improvement on the part of the younger generation has not been as extensive as their opportunities of instruction. No romance surrounds such a field of labor; it lacks all the elements which stir the enthusiasm of lofty minds; it is, in the highest degree, a work of faith, demanding the patience of hope and the labor of love. But now and then a gleam of light breaks out: some death-bed scene in the lowly cabin of the negro-quarter attests the power and glory of the gospel. Instead of the stupid indifference of a semi-brutal nature, or the frantic moanings of a terrified superstition, the missionary witnesses the calm confidence of a faith which leans on the bosom of Jesus—the Man of sorrows—the Son of God; and which trusts his merits for salvation in a crisis that baffles the proudest reason, and prostrates the loftiest self-righteousness.

"But, furthermore, it is worthy of notice that, in connection with regular preaching, the catechetical instruction of the young negroes is constantly attended to. This is uniformly done orally. These 'little children' are brought to Christ. Is it saying too much to affirm that of many such is the kingdom of heaven? Christian nurture thus grows with their growth. Correct ideas of God, of duty, of the relations of time and eternity, of human accountability—the foundation-principles of Christian character and life—are laid in the earliest years of these catechumens.

"In point of fact, a gratifying degree of success has crowned these efforts. The testimony of masters and missionaries goes to show that a wholesome effect has been produced upon the character of the negro population generally. A change for the better is visible everywhere, when the present generation is contrasted with the past."

ART. VII.—AMERICAN CITIES—PHILADELPHIA.

SEVERAL months since, when acknowledging the receipt of Mr. Friedley's work, entitled "Philadelphia and its Manufactures," we promised to make it the basis of an article upon that city, and shall endeavor now in part to fulfil the promise.

The causes which tend mostly to the development of manufacturing skill, are considered to be a general diffusion of intelligence among the people, security of property, an abundant supply of effective laborers, and of those qualified to direct them, position, climate, etc., advantages which Philadelphia enjoys in a very high degree, and she has accordingly made advances which scarcely any other American city may hope to exceed. The proximity and accessibility of her coal and iron mines alone, are a vast premium to her industry. The question of water-power and steam-power may now be considered settled in favor of the latter, and even in New-England, where coal must be transported such immense distances, the substitution is recommended, and largely adopted. In the coal districts of England are found all the great manu-

facturing cities and towns—Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Manchester, which, together, support over a million of inhabitants.

Philadelphia was founded in 1682-'83, by a colony of English Quakers, and it is intimated that Penn must have had in mind the ancient city of Babylon, which he imitated in the regularity of the streets, and seemed desirous to emulate in the extent of area included, since the commissioners were ordered to lay out a town of eight thousand acres, about thirteen square miles. In 1774, the first American Congress met in Carpenter's Hall, a building still standing in a court back of Chestnut-street, between Third and Fourth. Here was adopted the "Declaration of Independence," which was read in the State-House yard. The Federal Constitution was adopted here, and the first President, the Father of his country, fixed his residence, and held his court, in a building on the south side of Market-street, one door east of Sixth, the lot being now occupied by an immense clothing store. The old Bank of America, and its successor, the United States Bank, were here. In 1793, the Mint was established, which, up to the present time, independently of its branches, has coined about four hundred millions of dollars.

In 1793, the yellow fever visited Philadelphia, and destroyed four thousand persons, about one tenth of the entire population. It again visited the city in 1798.

In 1854, the corporate limits of Philadelphia were made so-extensive with those of the county of Philadelphia, covering an area of one hundred and twenty square miles, and bringing within the jurisdiction of the city a large number of adjoining villages and towns. Says Mr. Friedley :—

PHILADELPHIA is usually described as the second city in the United States; and, if we except Paris, nearly equals the largest capitals on the continent of Europe in population. No census has been taken since 1850; but assuming that the increase has been in the same ratio as that which distinguished the ten years preceding the last national census, its present population cannot be far short of 600,000. Its entire length, as per Ellet's Survey, is twenty-three miles, and average breadth five and a half miles; area, one hundred and twenty-nine and one-eighth square miles, or 82,700 acres. The densely inhabited portion of Philadelphia extends about four miles on the Delaware, from Southwark north to Richmond, formerly Port Richmond, and two and a half miles on the Schuylkill, having a breadth between the two rivers, assuming South-street formerly the southern boundary of the city to be the standard, of 12,098 feet 3 inches. The plan of regularity in the streets—originally adopted by Penn, and which, though condemned by some travellers accustomed to the crooked and narrow streets of European capitals, has been unqualifiedly approved by mathematical and scientific minds—is adhered to; and in the northern as well as the central parts of the city, there are avenues and streets which, for spaciousness and *legance*, are unsurpassed by any. The elegance of the *public buildings*

has long been a subject of remark, even in primary geographies; but, within the last few years, the architectural beauties of the city have been vastly enhanced by the erection of numerous costly *private* buildings: banks, stores, churches, dwellings—of granite, iron, sandstone, and marble; and its upward growth, by the addition of stories upon stories, is not less remarkable. Beyond the compact or densely built-up portions, in the northerly direction, there is a wide expanding district between the two rivers, occupied in part by beautiful suburban residences, and by numerous manufactories, surrounded by the habitations of industrious and contented artisans. The vicinity of Germantown is especially noted for the number of elegant cottages and villas, surrounded by handsomely laid out grounds, delightfully shaded; while the beauties of the Wissahickon, have they not inspired poets? But the citizens of Philadelphia, though appreciating her elegance in architecture, and scenes of natural beauty, cherish them less fondly, and point to them with less pride, than to the number and superiority of her charitable institutions, the excellence of her schools, the refinements of her society, her eminence in the Fine and the Mechanical Arts, the multiplied conveniences of life, promoting domestic comfort, and the celebrity of her Forum and Medical Schools, which, like the works of the Athenian orators, are regarded with veneration and respect by every polished nation.

The commerce of Philadelphia has not kept pace with her mining and her manufactures. For a long time she was the great commercial mart of the Western world, and entertained the shipping of Europe and the Indies. Her decline in this respect, however, is not owing to natural position, it being similar to that of Liverpool, London, and Paris; nor yet the want of depth at her bar, the charts showing from eighteen to twenty-five feet water; but to many other causes, which Mr. Friedley explains. These are the application of her capital and direction of her energies to the opening of the coal fields, and extension of her internal improvements. More than one hundred millions of dollars were withdrawn from commercial activity, and invested in productive and unproductive improvements and partially abortive schemes. At the present time there are within the borders of Pennsylvania upward of eight hundred miles of canal, and sixteen hundred miles of railroad, of which the revenues are mainly derived from freight on coal alone.

But we return again to our author. He says:—

On the first of January, 1858, Pennsylvania had 2,773½ miles of railroad, costing \$135,166,609; or, estimating the population of the State at three millions, the amount expended was at the rate of \$45 for each man, woman, and child in the commonwealth. The cost of constructing the canals within its borders, exceeding as they do 1,200 miles in length, has been stated at thirty millions of dollars. To these immense sums, if we add the amounts expended in seeking for minerals, sinking shafts, opening mines, disinterring iron ore, and erecting works to manufacture it, the vastness of expenditure incurred for the development of internal wealth, may well astonish and appal even those to whom the theme has become familiar by daily contemplation. In all these enterprises, the capital and credit of Philadelphia are conspicuous.

But the prodigies achieved within the limits of Pennsylvania, great as they are, did not exhaust the zeal of the citizens of Philadelphia in behalf of internal improvements. Their brethren in neighboring States, in the South and the West, have drawn largely for contributions to such projects; and, to the extent of our ability, their drafts have not been dishonored. The portfolios of our merchants are now plethoric with such obligations and bonds; and when presently available, will build an armada of merchant ships. If it were practicable to ascertain how many thousands of merchants are now thriving, how many tens of thousands of farmers in the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and the South, are now comparatively wealthy, because of their present facilities for reaching good markets—facilities encouraged and perfected through aid from Philadelphia—the revelation would so interweave the ties of friendship with those of mutual mercantile interests, as to form a bond indissoluble by any assaults.

In order to show the relative position of Philadelphia with regard to the trade-centres of the West, we extract the following table:—

	Cleveland, Ohio. Miles.	Cincinnati, Ohio. Miles.	Chicago, Ill. Miles.	Indianapolis, Ind. Miles.	St. Louis, Mo. Miles.
From Philadelphia, <i>via</i> Pennsylvania Railroad, to Pittsburg; thence by shortest Railroad route to.....	501	703	851	746	1000
New-York, <i>via</i> Hudson River to Piermont, and the Erie Railroad to Dunkirk, 468 miles; thence by shortest Railroad route.....	612	867	954	803	1154
New-York, <i>via</i> Hudson River Railroad to Albany; thence by Railroad to Buffalo, 442 miles; thence as above.....	625	880	967	906	1167
St. Louis, <i>via</i> Western Railroad to Albany and Buffalo, 498 miles; thence as above.....	681	936	1023	962	1223

The railroad system of Philadelphia extends to every point of the compass, reaching alike toward the ocean, into the coal-fields of the North, toward the great seaports, draining the rich agricultural regions, and pushing backward toward the Rocky Mountains, as the following table will show:—

Names, Length, and Cost of the Railroads centering in Philadelphia, with their Receipts, Expenses, and Surplus Earnings, for 1857.

Names.	Length.	Cost.	Gross Receipts.	Expenses.	Surplus Earnings.
Pennsylvania.....	393	{ \$19,766,981 58 7,500,000 00 }	\$4,855,060 76	\$3,000,742 00	\$1,854,326 86
Reading.....	68	10,262,720 27	3,063,521 56	1,481,745 22	1,581,776 34
Philad., Wilm'g'n, and Balt.	98	8,668,360 32	1,143,852 69	674,917 10	378,935 59
Phila. and Amboy.....	91	5,663,580 11	1,598,124 91	880,131 17	717,993 74
Philadelphia and Trenton..	28	1,000,000 00	operated in part by C. & A. Co.		
North Pennsylvania.....	68	8,166,290 57	248,783 80	112,786 65	136,597 15
Philad., Germ'tn, & Norris'n	21	1,810,812 28	812,958 63	132,852 25	170,266 75
Delaware and Philad.....	17	1,300,000 00	80,986 00	39,000 00	unfinished.
Phila. and Atlantic.....	61				

* This includes the Indian Branch, 19 miles; Hollidaysburg Branch, 9 miles; and Johnstown Branch, 37 miles; but excludes the Harrisburg, Lancaster, and Mountjoy Railroad, (23 miles) which is leased, not owned by the Pennsylvania Railroad.

† This includes Trenton and other branches.

But we have not space to enter very minutely into the vast stores of material which Mr. Friedley has collected upon the subject of Philadelphia manufactures, and which he arranges under appropriate heads and divisions. It is marvellous to perceive the diversity and extent of the operations which are conducted, and all that can be allowed us is to make some extracts from a few leading divisions:—

MEDICAL BOOKS.—We are informed that nine tenths of the Medical Books issued in the United States, are printed and published in Philadelphia. There are three firms extensively engaged in this branch, viz.: BLANCHARD & LEA, J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co., and LINDSAY & BLAKISTON; while others publish Medical Books to some extent. The first named of these houses make this department of the general trade their specialty, and their catalogue contains a more important list of valuable Medical Books than probably any in the world. The list of their own publications extends to about one hundred and seventy-five different works, or over two hundred different volumes, besides several Medical Journals: one of which, "The American Journal of Medical Science," edited by Dr. Hayes, is among the oldest periodicals of the country. Their cash capital invested in this business, is not far short of a quarter of a million of dollars. Messrs. LIPPINCOTT & Co. publish a number of important Medical books, as Wood & Bache's Dispensatory, Wood's Practice of Medicine, Wood's Materia Medica, Smith's Operative Surgery, and many others, and a very valuable periodical, entitled "The North American Medico-Chirurgical Review." Their general operations we shall notice subsequently. Messrs. LINDSAY & BLAKISTON publish a number of text books in Medical Science, and Rankin's Abstract, which has a large circulation. The Homœopathic branch has its representative among the publishers in Mr. RADDE. The contributions which Philadelphia has made to American Medical Literature are scarcely less important than her Medical Schools.

GENERAL PUBLISHING.—Foremost in the ranks of general publishers, are J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co., the house referred to by Mr. Carey, as probably the largest book distributing house in the world. It was established nearly thirty-five years ago by John Grigg, Esq., long and widely known as the most successful of booksellers, who, with his partners, conducted the business under the style and firm of Grigg & Eliot, and Grigg, Eliot & Co., until the year 1849, when Mr. J. B. Lippincott purchased the respective interests of Messrs. Grigg & Eliot, and, in connection with the junior partners of the old firm, established the present. This purchase was probably the heaviest ever made by one individual in the book trade.

The firm of J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. is now composed of six partners, Messrs. Lippincott, Remsen, Claxton, Willis, and two recently admitted, C. C. Haffelfinger and John A. Remsen. Their general business combines that of *Publishers, Printers, Bookbinders, and Wholesale Booksellers and Stationers*. As publishers, they have frequently set up in a year, twenty thousand solid octavo pages of new standard works, besides printing large editions from the stereotype plates of over two hundred different volumes, now in their vaults. Within the last few years they have issued a number of most costly and valuable books, as, for instance, their *Gazetteer of the World*, at a cost of \$50,000; *Indigenous Races of Mankind*, by Nott & Gliddon; and more recently, Bloodgett's *Climatology*, which has been highly eulogized by Humboldt, and other eminent scientific authorities. The character of their leading publications, as well as the enterprise of the publishers, will be inferred from these; or perhaps more distinctly, when we state that the original cost of four of their works, including their

illustrated edition of the *Waverley Novels*, and the *Comprehensive Commentary*, was \$186,300. They have recently incurred an important outlay to secure to Philadelphia the publication of Webster's Dictionary, of which they now publish five different editions.

In connection with the publishing house, Mr. Lippincott has recently erected a six-story building, equipped with new and superior machinery for printing and binding books, and in which about one hundred and fifty persons are constantly employed. The capital invested by this firm in the general business exceeds a half million of dollars; and the copyright money paid by them to authors, annually, cannot be far short of one hundred thousand dollars.

CHILDS & PETERSON, to whom we previously referred in connection with Law Books, are widely known as the publishers of the *Arctic Explorations*, 3 vols., 8vo, for which they paid the estate of Dr. Kane the sum of \$65,000, as the author's proceeds of the *first year's sale*, being, it is believed, a larger amount of copyright money than was ever before paid for one work in the world. They have now in press, Allibone's *Dictionary of Authors and Literature*, which will contain a mention of every author who has written in the English language, making in all, upward of thirty thousand names. It has been in course of stereotyping for the last five years, will be issued in 1859, in one volume, super-royal octavo of 1,800 pages, and will contain twenty per cent. more matter than Webster's quarto Dictionary. The firm of Childs & Peterson was established in 1848, and consists of Robert T. Peterson and George W. Childs.

LAGER BEER.—The manufacture of lager beer was introduced into this country about eighteen years ago, from Bavaria, where the process of brewing it was kept secret for a long period. Its reception was not a very cordial or welcome one; and about twelve years elapsed before its use became at all general. Within the last few years, however, the consumption has increased so enormously, not merely among the German population, but among the natives, that its manufacture forms an important item of productive industry. The superior quality of that made in Philadelphia has, no doubt, increased the demand, and by diminishing to some extent the use of fiery liquor, has effected partial good.* Lager signifies "kept,"

* The following report, by "our reporter," contains some important facts:

"Sir: You intrusted the investigation of the lager beer manufacture to one who wants every essential qualification for the task. I can neither speak German, eat Sauerkraut, nor drink lager. Before undertaking the commission, I wished to ascertain for my own satisfaction, without practical experiment, whether lager beer will intoxicate. I procured the evidence before the King's County Circuit Court (Brooklyn), and the following synopsis of the testimony on the part of the defence satisfied me, at least, if not the jury. One German testified, 'that he had on one occasion drank fifteen pint glasses before breakfast, in order to give him an appetite.' Another, Mr. Philip Koch, testified that 'once, upon a bet, he drank a keg of lager beer, containing seven and a half gallons, or thirty quarts, within two hours, and felt no intoxicating effects afterward. He frequently drank sixty, seventy, eighty, and ninety pint glasses in a day; did it as a usual thing when he was "flush." Others testified to drinking from twenty to fifty glasses in a day. One witness testified to seeing a man drink one hundred and sixty pint glasses, in a sitting of three or four hours, and walked straight. Dr. James H. Chilton, chemist, testified to analyzing lager beer, and found it to contain three and three quarters to four per cent. of alcohol, and did not think it would intoxicate, unless drank in extraordinary quantities. 'He had analyzed cider, and found it to contain nine per cent. alcohol; claret, thirteen per cent.; brandy, fifty per cent.; Madeira wine, twenty per cent.; and Sherry wine, eighteen per cent.'

"Lager beer was first introduced into Philadelphia, in 1840, by a Mr. Wagner, who afterward left the city. It was a lighter article than that now used. The first who made the real lager was Geo. Manger, better known as 'Big George'; who, in October, 1844, had a small kettle in one corner of the premises, still occupied by him in New-street, above Second. The beer used in the winter is lighter, and may be drawn five or six

or "on hand;" and lager beer is equivalent to "beer in store." It can be made from the same cereals from which other malt liquors are made; but barley is the grain generally used in this country. The processes resemble those of brewing ale and porter, with some points of difference, and the brewing generally forms a separate and distinct business.

There are now about thirty brewers of lager beer in Philadelphia, having a capital employed of \$1,200,000.

The statistics of the entire brewing business in Philadelphia, for 1857, are as follows:

<i>Product.</i>		
Ale, porter, and brown stout, 170,000 barrels, averaging \$6	- - -	\$1,020,000
Lager beer, 180,000 " " \$6	- - -	1,080,000
Other beer, say - - - - -	- - -	200,000
Total - - - - -	- - -	\$2,300,000
<i>Raw Material consumed, viz.:</i>		
Barley or malt, 750,000 bushels, at \$1 40	- - -	\$1,050,000
Hops, 800,000 lbs., at 15 cents	- - -	120,000
Total - - - - -	- - -	\$1,170,000

Philadelphia, though it has not entirely escaped, has been preserved in a great measure from the visitation of those whose sole aim is to speculate on human distress. The remedies of the established firms have much weighty testimony in favor of their excellence; and the popularity, and consequent saleability of a few, are truly remarkable. The enterprise of at least one Philadelphia firm has made their preparations known, not only throughout this country, but in the islands of the Atlantic and Pacific

weeks after brewing; but the real lager is made in cold weather, has a greater body—that is, more malt and hops are used—and is first drawn about the first of May. It is much improved by age and by keeping in a cool place. When first drawn, it is five months old; and as it is usually made in December, it is ten months old when the last is drawn. The vaults are probably the most interesting 'sights' connected with the business. The firm that constructed the first vault is that of ENGEL & WOLF—a firm that ranks among the most extensive, accommodating, and enterprising of our brewers. The vaults are built in the vicinity of Lemon Hill, near the Schuylkill and consists of solid stone exterior walls. These are subdivided by brick partitions, into cellars or vaults, of about twenty by forty feet, and communicate with each other by a door large enough to admit a puncheon; in this is a smaller door or aperture, about two feet square, barely sufficient to allow the passage of a keg.

"After the brewing has commenced, say in December, unless cold weather occur earlier, the most remote cellar or vault is filled—the ground tier, consisting of large casks, usually three rows, is placed on skids or sleepers, perhaps a foot from the ground, the rows far enough apart to permit a man to walk between. On these two rows of casks are placed; and above these, if the vault is high enough, one row of smaller casks or kegs are stowed. The other vaults are filled in like manner. After each is filled, the door is closed, and straw, tan, and other non-conductors are placed to keep out the external heated air of summer. The vaults are ventilated, and the temperature kept as low as possible. Should it exceed 8° Reaumur, or 50 Fahrenheit, the beer spoils. One only is opened at a time.

"Messrs. Engel & Wolf, before referred to, have seven vaults, in five of which 50,350 cubic feet were cut of solid rock. The bottom of the vault is about forty-five feet below ground. This firm have an agency in New-Orleans, and sell to nearly all the South, including Texas.

"One of the peculiarities of lager beer is the flavor imparted to it by the casks. The casks, previous to use, have their interior completely coated with resin; this is done by pouring a quantity of melted resin into the cask while the head is out, and igniting it. After it has been in a blaze for a few minutes, the head is put in again, which extinguishes the blaze, but the resin still remains hot and liquid; the cask is then rolled about, so as to coat every part of the interior with it; any resin remaining fluid is poured out through the bung-hole. This resin imparts some of its pitchy flavor to the beer."

oceans; in Burmah, Siam, India; and almost every nationality in Europe. They expend annually over *one hundred thousand dollars* in advertising alone. They keep eight double-medium, and two single-medium, and eight steel-plate presses in operation throughout the year. Their consumption of printing paper, during the last year, was 14,000 reams, costing \$39,782 96; and during the present year, they will print 2,600,000 Almanacs for gratuitous distribution. The rooms in the upper stories of an immense structure are occupied—one as a laboratory, another as a printing-office, a third as a binding and packing-room, and a fourth as a pill manufactory. About eighty persons are furnished constant employment in that establishment. For eight months of the year the expenditure of the firm referred to, for postage, is \$25 per day. Wherever a few backwoodsmen have reared their lonely cabins, an agency for these preparations is established; and so remote and isolated are some of the frontier ports, that a box shipped hence cannot reach its destination in a year.

TEXTILE FABRICS.—The aggregate value of these manufactures in Philadelphia or on its borders, is estimated at nearly \$30,000,000.

This simple statement has a significance, an interest, a value to every dealer in, we may say consumer of, dry goods throughout the Union, even to the remotest frontiers of civilization. Nearly thirty millions—probably over thirty millions of the most useful textile fabrics are made annually in Philadelphia and its vicinity, and found in first hands in the warehouses of Philadelphia merchants. No comments can possibly add anything to the force of a statement, the correctness of which all subsequent investigation will confirm, or if extended more minutely, will prove to be below the truth. We need deduce no inferences from it, for the eye of self-interest, quick in its perceptions, is generally quite as correct in its conclusions as political economy. When to the fact that thirty millions of dry goods are produced and controlled, if not monopolized by the manufacturers and merchants of Philadelphia, we add another, viz., that the manufacturers of Old England and New England consign every season their products to be sold in this market for what they will bring, the conclusion is inevitable, that *Philadelphia is the cheapest and best market in the Union for dry goods*, and fairly without a rival in those staple goods, the bulk of every stock, which, by their intrinsic value and low price, are **SPECIALLY ADAPTED TO THE WANTS OF THE PEOPLE OF THE MIDDLE, SOUTHERN, AND WESTERN STATES.**

SHARPS' RIFLE.—About six years ago, the attention of sporting and military men was invited to a new Breech-loading and Self-priming Rifle, which had been patented by a Mr. C. SHARPS; and, after the most careful examination of its construction, in comparison with others, it was found to stand the tests of a first-class weapon; being safe and certain in firing, easily and rapidly loaded, simple in its construction, and constantly kept clean by its own operation. For sporting purposes, this rifle soon became a favorite weapon; in Kansas its report was heard; the Ordnance Department at Washington expressed their admiration of the improvement; and subsequently the British Government ordered six thousand of these rifles for the use of their army in India. More recently, Mr. Sharps applied the principle which distinguishes his rifles to the construction of a new pistol or carbine, especially designed for the use of mounted dragoons. The advantages claimed by the patentee for the new pistol are numerous; among others, that it is more compact, lighter, has a more extensive range, and fires with greater accuracy, than any pistol now in use. It is *single-barreled*, but owing to the ease with which it can be loaded, it is capable of being fired twice as often as any revolver in a given period of time. *The pistol weighs about two and a half pounds; the barrels are six and eight*

inches long, and throw a half ounce ball effectively one fourth of a mile. It primes itself for twenty rounds. There are about 1,500 pistols now being constructed in the factory. It was recently tested, in competition with various other firearms, at West Point, by a board of officers appointed by the United States Ordnance Bureau, and struck a target six feet square, at a distance of six hundred yards, twenty out of thirty shots. The same pistol was fired seventy times in seven minutes, priming it three times, every ball striking a target three feet square, at a distance of forty-five feet, with a force sufficient to penetrate eight inches of pine board. Certificates from officers in the army testify to the high estimation in which it is held by the troops that have tried it.

Aggregate Value of Articles Produced in Philadelphia, for the Year ending June 30th, 1858.

Agricultural Implements, Seeds, &c., (estimated)	\$500,000	Fringes, Tassels, and Narrow Textile Fabrics	\$1,288,000
Alcohol, Burning Fluid, and Camphene	1,022,140	Furniture, (estimated)	2,500,000
Ale, Porter, and Brown Stout	1,020,000	Furs	350,000
Artificial Flowers	85,000	Gloves, Buck-kn and Kid	150,000
Awings, Bags, &c	91,750	Glue, Curled Hair, &c	775,000
Assaying and Refining Precious Metals, including actual expenses of U. S. Mint, \$130,000.	850,090	Gold Leaf and Foil	325,000
Barrels, Casks, Shooks, and Vats	715,000	Glassware	1,600,000
Beer, Lager and Small	1,280,000	Hardware, and Iron Manufactures, not otherwise enumerated	1,169,000
Blacking, Ink, and Lampblack, (estimated)	500,000	Hats, Silk and Soft	800,000
Bolts, Nuts, Screws, &c	411,000	Hose, Belting, &c	175,000
Book and Periodical Publishing, exclusive of Paper, Printing, Binding, &c.	818,000	Hosiery	1,808,150
Book Binding, Blank Books, and Marble Paper	1,230,000	Hollow-ware, exclusive of Stoves, &c	1,250,000
Boots and Shoes	4,141,000	Iron, Bar, Sheet, and Forged	1,517,850
Boxes, Packing, (estimated)	500,000	Jewelry and Manufactures of Gold	1,275,000
Brass Articles	830,000	Lamps, Chandeliers, and Gas Fixtures	1,300,000
Bread, Bakers', (including Cracker-) Ship Bread, &c	5,600,000	Leats and Boot Ties	36,000
Bricks, Common and Pressed	812,000	Lead Pipe, Sheet Lead, Shot, &c.	235,000
Britannia and Plated Wares	580,000	Leather, exclusive of Morocco	1,610,000
Brooms, Corn and other	104,000	Machinery	1,912,000
Brushes	225,000	Machine Tools	350,000
Candles, Adamantine and Oleine Oils	570,000	Mahogany and Sawed Lumber	580,000
Caps	400,000	Maps and Charts	400,000
Cards, Playing	118,000	Marble Work	860,000
Carpeting, Ingrain	2,502,000	Mantillas and Corsets	30,000
Carpeting, Rug	504,000	Matches, Friction	125,000
Carriages and Coaches	900,000	Medicines, Patent and Prepared Remedies	1,300,000
Cars and Car Wheels	550,000	Millinery Goods, including Bonnet Frames, Wire, &c., but excluding Straw Goods and Artificial Flowers	360,000
Chemicals, Dye-Stuffs, Chrome Colors, and Extracts	3,335,000	Mouldings, &c	300,000
Clothing	9,640,000	Morocco and Fancy Leather	1,156,250
Coffins, Ready-made	219,000	Musical Instruments	485,000
Combs	150,000	Mineral Waters	350,000
Confectionery, &c	1,020,000	New-papers, Daily and Weekly, (estimated)	1,370,000
Copper Work	400,000	Oil Cloths	289,000
Cordials, Bay Water, &c	200,000	Oils, Linseed, Lard and Tallow, Rosin, and R. R. Greases	2,131,230
Cotton and Woolen Good, exclusive of Hosiery, Carpetings, &c	14,813,680	Paints, Zinc, and Products of Paint Mills	770,000
Cordage, Twines, &c	810,000	Paper	1,250,000
Cutlery, Skates, &c	150,000	Paper Hangings	800,000
Daguerreotypes, Cases, and Materials (estimated)	600,000	Paper Boxes	175,000
Edge Tools, Hammers, &c	127,000	Pattern, Stove and Machinery	115,000
Earthenware, Fire-Bricks, &c	647,000	Perfumery and Fancy Soaps	850,000
Engines, Locomotive, Stationery, and Fire	3,428,000	Picture and Looking Glass Frames, (estimated)	750,000
Engraving and Lithography	570,000	Preserved Fruits, &c., (estimated)	350,000
Envelopes and Fancy Stationery	150,000	Printing Book and Job	1,183,000
Flooring and Planed Lumber	370,000	Printing Inks	160,000
Flour	3,290,000	Provisions—Cured Meats, Packed	4,000,000
Fertilizers	503,000	Beef, &c	120,000
		Rifles and Pistols	1,500,000
		Saddles, Harness, &c	150,000
		Safes	150,000

alls.....	\$135,000	Upholstery (estimated).....	500,000
ash, Blinds, Doors, &c.....	250,000	Umbrellas and Parasols, including	
aws.....	510,000	Umbrella Furniture, Ivory and Bone	
cales and Balances.....	145,000	Turning, Whalebone Cutting.....	\$1,750,000
hirts, Collars, Bosoms, and Gentle-		Varnishes.....	230,000
men's Furnishing Goods.....	1,187,500	Vessels, Masts and Spars, Blocks and	
hovels, Spades, Hoes, &c.....	397,000	Pumps, &c.....	1,760,000
low Cases.....	55,000	Vinegar and Cider.....	300,000
ewing Silks.....	312,000	Wagons, Carts and Drays.....	816,000
ilver-ware.....	450,000	Watch Cases.....	942,000
oap and Candles, exclusive of Ada-		Whips.....	175,000
mantine Candles.....	1,487,600	Whiskey, Distilled.....	630,000
prings, Railroad and Coach.....	238,000	" Rectified.....	2,524,500
pices, Condiments, Essence of Cof-		White Lead.....	960,000
fee, &c., &c.....	350,000	Willow-ware, Baskets, &c., (estm'd).....	120,000
tarch.....	155,000	Wire-work, (estimated).....	260,000
teel, Spring and Cast.....	283,500	Wooden and Cedar-ware.....	150,000
toves and Grates.....	1,250,000	Works in Wood not otherwise enu-	
andstone, Granite, Slate, &c.....	300,000	merated.....	100,000
traw Goods, including Hats.....	600,000	Miscellaneous Articles, not otherwise	
urgical and Dental Instruments,		enumerated. (Estimated).....	3,000,000
Trusses, and Artificial Limbs.....	350,000	Total Annual Product of Manu-	
ugar, Refined, and Molasses.....	6,500,000	facturing Industry in Philadel-	
ooth, Porcelain.....	600,000	phia.....	145,248,738
in, Zinc, and Sheet-Iron Ware.....	1,200,000	Add for Leading Branches in the	
obacco Manufactures, Cigars, Snuff,		vicinity of Philadelphia.....	26,500,000
&c.....	3,250,500	Total for Philadelphia and vicin-	
runks and Portmanteaus.....	313,000	ity.....	\$171,848,738
urnings in Wood.....	550,000		
ype and Stereotype.....	650,000		

ART. VIII.—STATE OF THE COUNTRY.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE AND ACCOMPANYING DOCUMENTS.

IN common with the whole country, we have read, with instruction and pleasure, the able state papers which have recently been issued from the Government office at Washington, and constitute, as it were, the annual balance-sheet of the nation. These papers, according to custom, will be analyzed and incorporated in the pages of the Review, where they will doubtless prove most acceptable to our readers, both for present use and future reference; and in making the analysis, we draw upon the columns of that excellent journal, (*the Washington States*), whose circulation, we trust, is extending very widely.

THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

The greater portion of the report of the Secretary of the Treasury is devoted to the operation of the tariff of 1857, and to a discussion of the best means of so revising the tariff, that the required revenue may be raised by imposing on the people at large the smallest and most equal burdens.

It is considered a subject of regret that a public necessity requires revision of the tariff of 1857, before a sufficient time has elapsed to test its legitimate effects upon the business of the country, as well as the revenues of the Government.

The proposition of a high protective tariff is not favorably considered by the Secretary.

Adhering to the principles of the present tariff act, the Secretary commends such changes as will, in his opinion, produce the amount

of revenue required for the public service. It is suggested that schedules C, D, F, G, H, be raised respectively to 25, 20, 15, 10, and 5 per cent. This change will, it is believed, increase the receipts by \$1,800,000. To raise the additional amount needed will not require an increase of all the rates of duty of the present tariff; it will become necessary to select certain articles to be transferred from lower to higher schedules.

The public debt on the 1st of July, 1857, was \$29,060,386 90. During the last fiscal year there was paid of that debt the sum of \$8,904,409 24, leaving the sum of \$25,155,977 66 outstanding on the first of July, 1858. To this amount must be added the sum of \$10,000,000 negotiated during the present fiscal year, of the loan authorized by the act of June 14, 1858. There was issued under the provisions of the act of December 23, 1857, during the last fiscal year, treasury-notes to the amount of \$23,716,300, of which there was redeemed, during the same period, \$3,961,500, leaving the sum of \$19,754,800 outstanding on the first of July, 1858. As these notes will become due and payable during the next fiscal year, some provision therefore is recommended to be made.

The Secretary is opposed to the policy of adding this amount to the permanent public debt by funding the notes. On the other hand, their entire redemption in one year would call for an increase of the tariff to a point which would render necessary another revision of it in the succeeding year. In the opinion of the Secretary, the true policy would be to look, in the present revision of the tariff, to their gradual redemption, commencing with the next fiscal year. To carry out this policy, it is recommended that Congress should provide for the raising of such an amount of revenue as will enable the Secretary to redeem a portion of them, and, at the same time, extend for one year the provisions of the act of December 23, 1857, authorizing the reissue of such portion of them as the means of the Government are not sufficient to redeem.

The operations of the independent treasury system have been conducted during the last fiscal year with the usual success. The Secretary is well satisfied that the wholesome restraint which the collection of the Government dues in specie exerts over the operation of our present banking system, contributed in no small degree to mitigate the disasters of the late revolution.

The attention of Congress is again called to the provisions of the act of March 3, 1857, on the subject of deposits by the disbursing agents of the Government. The objects which the act sought to accomplish, meet the entire approval of the Secretary, and it has been carried out to the utmost extent that was practicable, but a full execution of the law is impossible as it now stands.

By the report of the Director of the Mint, it appears that the amount of bullion received at the several mint establishments during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, was \$51,494,311 29 in gold, and \$9,199,954 67 in silver, and that the coinage during the same period amounted to \$52,889,800 29 in gold, and \$8,233,287 77 in silver, and \$234,000 in cents.

The Director recommends that the law be so amended as to make silver a legal tender to the extent of fifty or one hundred dollars ; but the Secretary sees no urgent necessity for such a change.

Many of the various public buildings under the direction of the Bureau of Construction have been completed during the past year, and are ready to be occupied for the purposes for which they were intended. In the last report, the attention of Congress was called to the fact that, owing to the condition of the treasury, the department had postponed the building of a portion of the public works authorized by previous enactments. The Secretary considers the present condition of the treasury as not more favorable for their construction.

The recommendations in the last report on the subject of hospitals, are renewed.

It is deemed most important that the bill for the consolidation and revision of the revenue laws should receive the favorable action of Congress during the present session.

On the 1st of July, 1857, being the commencement of the fiscal year 1858, the balance in the treasury was\$17,710,114 27
The receipts into the treasury during the fiscal year 1858, were \$70,273,869 59, as follows:

Quarter ending Sept. 30, 1857—

Customs.....	\$18,573,729 37	
Public lands.....	2,059,449 39	
Miscellaneous sources.....	296,641 05	
		20,929,819 81

Quarter ending Dec. 31, 1857—

Customs.....	\$6,237,723 69	
Public lands.....	498,781 53	
Miscellaneous sources.....	356,159 78	
		7,092,665 00

Quarter ending March 31, 1858—

Customs.....	\$7,127,900 69	
Public lands.....	480,936 88	
Miscellaneous sources.....	393,690 78	
Treasury-notes issued.....	11,087,600 00	
		19,090,128 35

Quarter ending June 30, 1858—

Customs.....	\$9,850,267 21	
Public lands.....	474,548 07	
Miscellaneous sources.....	207,741 15	
Treasury-notes issued.....	12,628,700 00	
		23,161,256 43

The aggregate means, therefore, for the service of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, were.....\$7,983,983 86

The expenditures during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, were as follows:

Civil, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous.....	\$26,387,822 20
Service in charge of Interior Department.....	6,051,923 38
Service in charge of War Department.....	25,485,383 60
Service in charge of Navy Department.....	13,976,000 59
Public debt and redemption of treasury-notes.....	9,684,537 99

During the first quarter of the current fiscal year, from July 1 to September 30, 1858, the receipts into the treasury, were \$25,230,879 46.

It is estimated that the receipts during the remaining quarters of the current fiscal year to June 30, 1858, will be \$38,500,000.

The estimated ordinary means for the current fiscal year, are \$70,129,195 56.

The expenditures of the first quarter of the current fiscal year ending September 30, 1858, were \$21,708,198 51.

It is estimated that the expenditures during the remaining three quarters, will be \$52,357,698 48.

The estimated total expenditures for the current fiscal year are, therefore, \$74,065,896 99.

THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

In the administration of the Interior Department, there is no subject of greater magnitude or of deeper interest to the people of the United States than that of the public lands. Our system of disposing of them is the most just and equal, and at the same time the most conducive to their rapid settlement and reclamation from a wild and unproductive state, that has ever been devised by any government which has possessed extensive tracts of uncultivated land. It is a system peculiar to the United States, and is based upon the simple but just principle, that, as the public domain is the property of the people of all the States collectively, any individual desiring to appropriate to himself any particular portion of it, is allowed to do so by paying into the common treasury a moderate consideration.

Under our system of public sales and pre-emption rights, settlements have been made on a secure and permanent basis. The tide of emigration has rolled westward from the Atlantic coast, driving the Indian before it, and leaving in its rear flourishing States and prosperous communities, till it has now reached the heart of the continent; while from the shores of the Pacific, for several years past, the enterprising pioneer has been on his steady march eastward, exploring unknown territory, and bringing to light the rich mine and the prolific soil, which the industrious settler will soon occupy and improve.

In the opinion of the Secretary of the Interior, the system yielding these results has been the work of enlightened legislation, extending through half a century. It is peculiarly adapted to the wants and characteristics of our people. It lies at the foundation of our rapid progress as a nation, has developed our physical resources, and, in my opinion, needs no material change.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, there have been disposed of to individuals 9,607,058.46 acres of the public lands, of which 3,804,908 acres were sold for cash, yielding \$2,116,768; and 5,802,153 acres were located with military bounty land warrants.

Of the quantity sold for cash, 817,529.35 acres were sold at and above one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, and yielded

\$1,150,166 73; while 2,987,397.11 acres were sold at graduated prices, for which the sum of \$966,601 29 was received into the treasury.

The lands which have been sold and located during the year were, in the main, for actual settlement or cultivation.

On the 30th September, 1858, the quantity of surveyed lands ready to be brought into market was 61,951,049 acres; and there were then subject to sale at private entry, at all the land offices, over 10,000,000 acres.

Under the various acts of Congress, of 1847, 1850, 1852, and 1855, there have been issued 516,768 military bounty land warrants, requiring 55,731,890 acres of the public domain to satisfy them. Of these 416,632 had been located to the 30th September last, on 14,238,030 acres of land, leaving outstanding 100,136 warrants, calling for 11,493,860 acres of land.

It is confidently expected that during the next calendar year the receipts from the sales of public land, and the quantities sold and located, will be greatly increased. The income from this source will be, it is estimated, at least five millions of dollars.

The aggregate quantity of swamp and overflowed lands selected and reported, to the 30th September last, as enuring to States under the grants of 1849 and 1850, is 55,129,492 acres, of which there have been approved and certified to said States, under the act of 1849, 7,379,994 acres, and under the act of 1850, 33,543,187 acres; making an aggregate of 40,923,181 acres.

It has been satisfactorily ascertained that mines of the precious metals are to be found in the Territories of Washington, Oregon, New Mexico, and Kansas, and the time has arrived for the Government of the United States to adopt some definite policy as to its mineral lands. Under the act of March 3, 1853, providing for the survey of the public lands in California, the surveyor-general is prohibited from laying off, by subdivisional lines, those townships of land which are mineral.

During the past year there has been much excitement among the wild tribes in the interior of the continent. The withdrawal of the troops from the military posts on the frontier, and their march through the Indian country to the Territory of Utah; the passage of the many supply trains of great magnitude, with their numerous attendants, over the long route to the same destination; and the discovery of new gold mines in the Territories of New Mexico, Kansas, and Washington, and in the British possessions adjacent to our northern boundaries west of the Rocky Mountains, have set on motion a larger class of adventurers, who have traversed extensive tracts of country heretofore untrod save by Indian tribes. The opening of three wagon roads, and the establishment of the overland mail routes across the continent, have presented new inducements and facilities for travelling over the plains of the interior; and all these causes combined have had no little influence in disturbing our amicable relations with those nomadic tribes, that subsist almost exclusively upon the spoils of the chase.

With the exception of the marauding bands that wander about the boundary between the United States and Mexico, toward whom we should pursue an energetic and decisive policy, the great mass of the Indians are now in a condition and temper to inspire the hope that increased success will crown the efforts now making for their improvement.

During the year ending 30th September last, 13,815 bounty land warrants were issued, requiring 2,034,420 acres of land to satisfy them. Under the acts of 1847 and 1855, there are about 74,000 bounty land claims pending in the office, originally suspended on account of informality, irregularity, or defective proof. Many of these cases are called up from time to time by the parties interested for re-examination, requiring a large amount of labor and patient investigation in the disposition of them.

The whole number of army pensioners under the various acts of Congress is 10,723, requiring for their payment the annual sum of \$902,700 29.

The whole number of navy pensioners is 892, and the aggregate amount of their annual payments is \$130,501 10.

The entire amount which has heretofore been paid under the various pension and bounty land acts far exceeds the anticipations of those who advocated their enactment, and will be learned by the country with some surprise. It appears that the total disbursement for pensions up to this date is about \$90,000,000. If to this sum we add the bounties in land, 62,739,362 acres, and estimate that land at \$1 25 per acre, the total amount granted for bounties and pensions will be \$168,424,202.

From the 1st of January to the 30th of September, 1858, four thousand and ninety-one applications for patents were received, and six hundred and ninety-six caveats filed, against four thousand and ninety-five applications for patents, and eight hundred and twenty caveats for the corresponding quarters of last year. During the same period, two thousand eight hundred and sixteen patents were issued, fifteen extensions of old patents granted, and twelve hundred and fifty-six applications rejected.

LAND-OFFICE.—Under the acts of 1849 and 1850, granting the swamp and overflowed lands to the States within which they are situated, there have been selected and reported to the General Land-Office 55,129,492.13 acres; upon which patents, and lists having the effect of patents, have issued for 36,096,858.34 acres.

Of this Ohio receives.....	53,438.14 acres.
Indiana.....	1,334,732.50 "
Illinois.....	3,243,891.46 "
Missouri.....	4,248,203.81 "
Alabama.....	2,595.51 "
Mississippi.....	2,836,675.89 "
Iowa.....	1,752,296.29 "
Louisiana, act 1849.....	10,660,398.33 "
" " 1850.....	541,945.95 "
Michigan.....	7,273,724.72 "
Arkansas.....	8,562,552.93 "
Florida.....	11,790,637.46 "
Wisconsin.....	2,827,199.14 "

By the acts of Congress of May 15th, 17th, June 3d, and August 11th, 1856, and March 3d, 1857, grants of land for railroad purposes were made to Iowa, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Wisconsin, Michigan, Mississippi, and Minnesota. The lines of roads are described in the acts, and the alternate sections, within six miles on each side thereof, are granted with the right of selecting, within the limit of 15 miles, other lands in lieu of those which the United States may have sold, or otherwise disposed of, within the six miles limit.

With the exception of two of the roads, the States have accepted the grants, the surveys of most of the roads have been made, and reported to the General Land Office, and the work connected with the adjustment of the grants, assigning to the States the granted lands, and restoring to market the reserved government lands, is rapidly progressing.

Iowa receives for the—

Dubuque and Pacific railroad.....	1,137,143	acres.
Iowa Central Airline railroad.....	686,523	"
Mississippi and Missouri railroad.....	400,000	"
Burlington and Missouri railroad.....	252,656	"

Making a total of..... 2,476,321 "

Alabama receives for the—

Florida railroad, the Mobile and Girard, and the Alabama and Tennessee railroads.....	1,148,500	"
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Florida receives for the—

Florida and Alabama railroad.....	165,687	"
Florida and Alabama Gulf Central railroad...	27,778	"
Pensacola and Georgia, (estimated).....	901,000	"
Florida, (estimated).....	280,000	"

Making a total of..... 1,374,465 "

Louisiana receives for the—

New-Orleans, Opelousas, and Great Western railroads.....	684,000	"
Vicksburg, Shreveport, and Texas railroad...	863,670	"

Making a total of..... 1,047,670 "

Wisconsin receives for the—

La Crosse and Milwaukee railroad.....	725,000	"
St. Croix and Lake Superior railroad.....	900,000	"
Chicago, St. Paul, and Fond du Lac railroad...	600,000	"

Making a total of..... 2,225,000 "

It is estimated that Michigan will receive for her part of the—

Chicago, St. Paul, and Fond du Lac railroad..	575,000	acres.
Grand Rapids and Indiana railroad.....	660,000	"
Detroit and Milwaukee railroad.....	35,000	"
Point Huron and Milwaukee railroad.....	15,000	"
Flint and Pere Marquette railroad.....	625,000	"

Making a total of..... 1,910,000 "

It is estimated that under the act of March 8, 1857, Minnesota will receive for the—

Minnesota and Pacific railroad.....	850,000 acres.
And its branch.....	400,000 "
Minneapolis and Cedar Valley railroad and its branch	150,000 "
Making a total of.....	1,400,000 "

The report presents no estimate of the lands granted to the Southern Minnesota and Southern railroads, the maps being incomplete, and not finally acted upon.

The following is the estimate of the quantities of land (offered and unoffered) up to this time, released from railroad withdrawals, and restored to market.

Iowa.....	4,000,000 acres.
Wisconsin.....	8,250,000 "
Michigan.....	1,590,000 "
Alabama.....	750,000 "
Louisiana.....	2,000,000 "
Florida.....	2,000,000 "
Total.....	18,590,000 "

PENSION OFFICE.

It appears from the report of the Commissioner of Pensions that the business of his bureau is now up to date in all its branches, and that a material reduction of its clerical force will soon become necessary.

During the past year 209 army invalid pensioners have been added to the rolls, the aggregate of whose yearly stipend is \$18,775; that the allowances of 35 have been increased in the further sum or \$1,386, and that the whole number of pensioners of this class now on the rolls in all the States is 4,916, requiring the annual sum of \$446,485.93. The claims of eleven surviving Revolutionary soldiers have been allowed, and five have had their stipend increased. One hundred and fifty-two claims have been allowed to widows of Revolutionary soldiers for the aggregate annual sum of \$8,354.06, and thirty-nine have had their pensions increased in the further sum of \$2,070.35 per annum. The number of revolutionary soldiers yet alive and drawing pensions is 253, and the number of widows of deceased Revolutionary soldiers is 4,209. The annual amount which is required for the former is \$14,734.29, and for the latter, \$334,450.85.

The number of revolutionary soldiers, whose deaths have been reported during the year is 104, and of widows, 624. One hundred and eighty-seven claims have been allowed to widows and orphans of the army, whose yearly pensions amount to \$13,924. The whole number of this class now on the rolls is 1,345, and their pensions

mount to \$107,029 22 per annum. The whole number of army pensioners now on the rolls, under all the acts, is 10,723, and the sum of their stipends is \$902,700 29. Thirty claims have been allowed to invalids of the navy, requiring \$1,485 50 per annum, and thirty-two to widows and orphans of deceased naval officers, &c., requiring the annual sum of \$6,696. The whole number of navy pensioners now on the rolls, is 892, whose pensions amount to the aggregate sum of \$130,501 10 per annum. The entire amount paid during the year ending June 30, 1858, for army and navy pensions, exclusive of the half-pay pension claims, adjudicated by the Third Auditor of the Treasury, and of what are termed "unclaimed pensions," was \$1,130,369 95.

Under the act of June 3, 1858, renewing and continuing for life, during widowhood, the half-pay pensions previously granted to certain widows and orphans, for the limited period of five years, 41 claims have been allowed, involving the immediate payment of \$46,031 15, and \$44,087 annually thereafter. The whole number of claims to be allowed under this act, is estimated to be not less than 3,000. The report asserts a saving to the treasury of \$118,670 20 during the past year as the result of the Secretary's decision to discontinue the practice (pronounced by the Attorney-General to be *illegal*) of paying to the children of deceased revolutionary soldiers, and of their widows, the pensions they might have drawn, but did not claim during their lifetime.

The whole number of bounty land warrants issued during the year is 13,815, which require 2,034,420 acres of land to satisfy them. This, added to the quantity reported last year, makes the whole amount of public land granted by the United States for military services, 62,739,362 acres. The number of bounty land claims on the suspended files, under the acts of 1847 and 1855, which may or may not be established by further evidence, is about 74,000. It appears that 398,980 acres of bounty land is yet due to officers and soldiers of the Revolution, and to soldiers of the late war with Great Britain, which, if claimed, cannot be awarded unless the limitation of time, within which the warrants must be issued, be extended, which the report recommends. Numerous frauds, under the bounty laws, have been detected during the past year, covering 175,000 acres of land. Four of the perpetrators of them have been convicted and sentenced; one has escaped punishment under the statute limiting prosecutions to two years after the commission of the offence, and thirteen others, against whom indictments have been found, await trial. Besides these, it is intimated that strong suspicions exist against other parties against whom the evidence is not yet sufficient to justify judicial proceedings.

The Commissioner states, that the laudable desire of his predecessors to execute the recent bounty land laws with a dispatch commensurate with the number and necessities of their beneficiaries, prevented their making such permanent records of their labors as they designed, and that he is having this necessary work accomplished.

Allusion is made to a forthcoming report, in answer to a call from the Senate, for information as to the amount expended on account of pensions in the several States since the foundation of Government; and it is stated that the sum already paid by the United States for military services, in land and money (estimating the land at \$1 25 per acre), amounts to about \$168,424,202. The Commissioner concludes his report by renewing certain previous recommendations which further reflection and experience approve, and with an acknowledgment of the prompt and efficient co-operation of the gentlemen immediately associated with him in his branch of the public service.

THE INDIANS.

The whole number of Indians within our limits is estimated to be about 350,000. The whole number of tribes and separate bands is 175, with 44 of which we have treaty engagements. The number of ratified Indian treaties, since the adoption of the Constitution, is 393, nearly all of which contain provisions still in force. The quantity of land acquired by these treaties is about 581,168,168 acres; the entire cost of fulfilling these treaties will be \$49,816,344. From a part of these lands the Government received no pecuniary advantage, because they were ceded to the respective States within whose limits they were situated. From those sold, the Federal Treasury received not only the whole of the expense incurred for their acquisition, survey and sale, but a surplus of at least one hundred millions of dollars.

The amount applicable for the fulfilment of treaties, and for other objects connected with the Indian policy for the present fiscal year, was \$4,852,407 34, of which sum \$204,662 89 was derived from investments of trust funds. The whole amount of trust funds held on Indian account is \$10,590,649 62, of which \$3,502,241 82 has been invested in stocks of various States and the United States; the remainder, viz. : \$7,088,407 80, is retained in the treasury, and the interest thereon annually appropriated by Congress. The Commissioner thinks it worthy of consideration whether it will not be advisable, when the national treasury shall be in a condition to admit of it, also to invest the above amount of \$7,088,407 80 in like manner with the other Indian trust funds.

The aggregate amount appropriated by Congress for the Indian service during the present fiscal year was \$2,659,389, of which \$1,309,054 was required for the fulfilment of treaties, leaving only \$1,350,335 for recognized and established objects of expenditure connected with our Indian policy, over which economical discretion could be exercised. The Commissioner hopes, by a system of retrenchment already commenced in the colonizing policy in Oregon, California, and Texas, to reduce materially the expenses of the remainder of the present, and during the next fiscal year. Every item in the estimate submitted for the last-mentioned period has been carefully scrutinized, and the sum estimated is less by \$744,829 51 than the amount appropriated for the present fiscal year. •

The Commissioner points out three fatal errors, which have marked our policy toward the Indians from the very beginning, viz. :

1. Their removal from place to place as our population advanced.
2. The assignment of too great an extent of country to be held by them in common.
3. The allowance of large sums of money as annuities.

THE NAVY DEPARTMENT.

Since the last annual report, the Department has been required to employ a naval force for the purpose of arresting unlawful expeditions against Nicaragua, resisting the exercise of the right of search by British cruisers in the neighborhood of Cuba, and enforcing a demand of redress for an insult to our flag and for injuries to our citizens by the government of Paraguay.

The orders and the successful action of Flag-Officer Paulding, and those under his command, in breaking up the expedition against Nicaragua, set on foot by General Walker, were fully communicated to Congress at its last session, by the special message of the President of January 17, 1858.

The vessels sent into the neighborhood of Cuba, to resist the exercise of the right of search by British cruisers, were all deemed effective for the object for which they were sent, because, in the execution of their mission, no one of them would have hesitated to resist a ship of the largest class. They were instructed to protect all vessels of the United States against the exercise of the right of search on the high seas, in time of peace, by the armed vessels of any other power. These instructions have been often repeated, and are now regarded as standing instructions to the navy of the United States, wherever employed. They put the deck of an American vessel on the same footing with American soil, the invasion of which, under foreign authority, is to be as strenuously resisted in the one case as in the other. They regard such invasion as in the highest degree offensive to the United States, incompatible with their sovereignty and with the freedom of the seas, and to be met and resisted by the whole power of the country.

Congress having authorized the President to use force to obtain redress from the government of Paraguay, it was deemed expedient to send a powerful fleet into that neighborhood, to be employed, if necessary, for that purpose. Accordingly the squadron on the east coast of South America has been increased, so that it will consist of two frigates, two sloops-of-war, three brigs, twelve armed steamers, and two armed store-ships. They have been ordered to rendezvous near Buenos Ayres, and to be in readiness for any action that may be required. It has been the object of the Department to leave no doubt as to the success of the expedition. In connection with this matter, it is recommended that the nine steamers which have been chartered for service in the expedition be purchased by the Government. Their total cost would be \$530,000.

For the support of the navy and marine corps, and all other ob-

jects under the control of the Navy Department, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, the estimates were \$13,803,212 77; appropriations, \$14,240,247 27; expenditures, \$13,870,684 76; there having been some curtailment of expenditures by reason of a falling off of the revenue.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1859, the estimates were \$14,616,298 23; appropriations, \$14,508,354 23, these having been largely retrenched in consequence of the diminution of the revenue, and again increased by appropriating \$1,200,000 for eight light-draught war-steamers, which were not embraced in the estimates.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860, the estimates are \$13,500,370 80, including \$674,000 for completing the eight light-draught steamers authorized at the last session of Congress, and not including the usual compensation of \$935,850 for steamship mail service, which will then be discontinued.

These estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860, are, for the navy proper, \$9,470,879; for the marine corps, \$708,894 55; and for all other objects, \$3,326,097 25.

THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

The authorized strength of the army, as posted, is 18,165; but the actual strength on the 1st July, distributed throughout the States and Territories of the entire confederacy, holding the posts defending our extended frontier, and protecting, as far as possible, the routes from the Mississippi valley to our Pacific possessions, was 17,498. The demands at the various posts, and for what the Secretary terms "the police operations of the army," left only 13 regiments—little over 11,000 men for actual service—and upon this small force devolved the arduous duty of the Indian war, which extended this year from the British possessions on the Pacific, to the Texan borders, as well as crushing the Utah rebellion. With considerable pride it is asserted that no army of the same size, and in the same space of time, ever performed marches and movements of such extent—surmounting such formidable obstacles.

Within a year the regiments average a march of 1,234 miles; the marches being made, in the main, through uninhabited solitudes and sterile deserts. Every item of supply, from a horseshoe nail to the heaviest ordnance, was carried along to be ready at any emergency. Secretary Floyd recommends for well-deserved commendation, the labor, foresight, method, and care which systematized, and the energy and activity which carried out the operations.

A permanent peace has been established with the Indian tribes of Washington and Oregon Territories, owing to the wise forecast of Brevet Brigadier-General Clark, commanding the Department of the Pacific, and to Colonel Wright, of the 9th Infantry, who prosecuted the campaign against the powerful tribes of Spokanes and Cœur d'Alenes, aided by the Palouses and other tribes.

In New-Mexico the warlike Navajos have risen, and, up to last accounts, show no disposition to succumb. The expedition against

them has been conducted with skill, courage, and energy, by Col. Bonneville, upon whom the command devolved from the return to the States of Brevet Brigadier-General Garland in ill-health.

The enemy has been met on several occasions, and always routed, although our disparity of numbers has always been very great. The Navajos are very rich in herds and flocks, and possess considerable quantities of grain, enough to enable them, for some time, to prosecute the war. They probably number about three thousand mounted warriors, an extremely formidable force, particularly in the wild and remote country they inhabit.

In Texas, and on its borders, the war with the Camanches of the plains and their kinsmen, the Kiowas, progresses. Our troops, under Major Van Dorn, have met and routed the Indians, yet the Secretary feels justified in believing the war but actually just begun, and expects it to be fierce.

In addition to these operations, troops have been placed upon the northwestern frontier, to afford protection to the border settlements. Apprehensions of hostility from the Indians beyond the confines of Iowa and Minnesota exist, and the Secretary regrets that sufficient men cannot be spared to quiet these alarms.

The Secretary has caused a map to be made, showing all the military posts, and the roads travelled; and argues from the facts thus laid before the President, that both economy and the proper efficiency of the army require an increase of it; and knowing, as he does, the action of Congress upon this subject at the last session, he feels constrained to lay these facts before the country, that any apparent lack of efficiency in giving complete protection to our frontiers may be set down to the want of numbers, and not to any want of activity on the part of our troops.

The public are tolerably familiar with the progress of the Mormon war. The moral sentiment of the country was with the government, and adequate and prompt preparation was an act of humanity and mercy to those deluded people, in preventing an effusion of blood. The calm and lofty bearing of Brevet Brigadier A. S. Johnston under the trials and embarrassments of the movements in Utah meet deserved recognition. Capt. R. B. Marcy's (3d infantry) march through the trackless wilderness, and over rugged and pathless mountains—from Fort Bridger to New Mexico in search of supplies, and his return, forms a brilliant episode in the Report. Secretary Floyd thinks that the necessity which called for troops in Utah, will require a strong force there yet, as the people still evince insubordination and moody discontent.

Great improvements have been made in the roads through the Territory of Utah since the march of the army thither. A new route has been opened from Fort Bridger to the present encampment of the army near Utah lake, by what is called the Valley of the Timpanogos, which diminishes the distance to California in comparison with that usually travelled by Soda Springs, two hundred and fifty miles; and is shorter by one hundred and thirty miles than the present route through Salt Lake.

Every year exhibits the great advantage of military explorations and surveys. The large and almost wholly unknown region of country lying between our Atlantic and Pacific frontiers, is becoming every day more familiarly understood by means of information gained through these explorations and surveys.

Important additions to our geographical knowledge have been made since the last report, by the expeditions to the Colorado regions, under Lieutenant Ives, as well as the Black Hills west of Nebraska Territory. The entire explorations of the sources of the Missouri is recommended. The Secretary believes that a most important line of intercommunication between the Mississippi Valley and the river Oregon will yet be opened, either through the country spoken of, or a little more north, upon a line extending from Lake Superior, along the waters of the upper Missouri to those of the Oregon. At all events, we need information about this country. A geological map, too, is needed, upon which the extensive deposits of precious metals throughout our vast dominion, in search for which such immense sums are annually expended, would be accurately marked; while the great articles of national wealth and prosperity—iron, coal, and salt—would be so clearly defined that no money need ever be thrown away in fruitless search for them in localities where they do not exist. Such a map would direct wisely the expenditures of money and labor, and would restrain losses likely to arise from ignorance or wilful misrepresentation.

In expeditions against the roving tribes of the plains, camels could be used to very great advantage. In the space of three days a well-appointed command could set out and traverse a space of 150 miles, without difficulty or much fatigue, and fall upon any Indian tribe perfectly unawares. They would be able to carry all necessary supplies for the campaign, and traverse the arid plains without any inconvenience from want of water. The camel lives and thrives upon what would not sustain the hardiest mule, and it could not fail to be a measure of wise economy, if Congress would authorize a purchase of a thousand camels for the purposes spoken of. This could be done at comparatively small cost, if a suitable vessel of the navy was detailed to transport them.

THE UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE.

On the first of July last an arrangement took effect by which mails are conveyed between Washington and New-Orleans in four and a half days, by way of Richmond and Lynchburg, Va., Knoxville and Grand Junction, Tenn., and Jackson, Miss.

From and after 1st July next, mails are to be conveyed by the same route in three days and a half.

The proposed route from New-York via Fernandina and Cedar Key, Fla., to New-Orleans, is favorably noticed, but no progress has been made in the negotiations for putting it in operation.

ST. LOUIS AND NEW-ORLEANS MAIL.

The great *through* mails between Cairo, Ill., and New-Orleans, will, before the end of the year, be conveyed mostly by railroad.

Anticipating this state of things, the Department, at the lettings of contracts, divided the Mississippi river routes, as follows :

St. Louis via Cairo to Memphis, Tenn., three times a week.

Nashville via Cairo to Memphis three times a week, the two routes, running on alternate days, making six weekly trips each way, between Cairo and Memphis.

Memphis to New-Orleans, six times a week, with one additional weekly trip between Memphis and Napoleon, and four additional weekly trips between St. Francisville and New-Orleans.

The cost of these routes is \$169,715 per annum less than that under the contracts which expired 30th June last, and the new service is in all respects more satisfactory than the old.

The shortest time by the river between Cairo and New-Orleans has been four days.

By land the time will probably be two days, while the expense for the new service, *both by the river and land*, will be \$57,290 per annum, within that of the river service *alone*, up to 1st July last.

GREAT OVERLAND MAIL ROUTE.

The conveyance of the letter mails overland between the Mississippi river and San Francisco commenced on 15th September last, and the Department reports the conclusive and triumphant success of the route. The departure and arrivals of mails were noticed with unbounded demonstration of joy and exultation.

TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

A contract has been made for conveying mails from New-Orleans, by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, to San Francisco, semi-monthly, time fifteen days. The service actually commenced 27th October, under auspices which, it is believed, promise complete success.

THE EXPENSES AND UTILITY OF THE DEPARTMENT.

The expenses of the Department over and above its revenues, have regularly increased ever since the reduction of postages.

If it be desired to relieve the treasury from the requisitions upon it for the service of this Department, it will be necessary not only to reduce expenses by disconnecting the mails from the transportation of passengers and freight, but to increase the revenue by the imposition of rates of postage approaching more nearly the value or cost of transportation and delivery of letters and printed matter. A move in this direction was made at the last session of Congress by the introduction of a bill in the Senate having for its chief objects the raising of the three-cent rate upon letters to five cents, and the abolition of the discount now allowed by law for the payment of newspaper and pamphlet postage quarterly or yearly in advance.

It is believed that the effect of this bill would be to raise the revenue from postages about \$3,500,000, without taking into view the provision it contains in relation to the transmission of public documents. The immense masses of heavy books and documents ~~see~~

through the mails, to all parts of the country devolve a very considerable expense upon the Department for larger means of transportation than would be required for the ordinary mails. This expense, it is true, is compensated in part by the annual appropriation of \$700,000 from the treasury by the acts of March 3, 1847, and March 3, 1851; but this allowance is not believed to be one half of what such matter would amount to if charged with postage.

It is not fair, however, to measure the post-office's usefulness by the mere receipt of postages, nor to complain that, in accomplishing great and lasting benefits to the commerce, to the settlement and security of the country, it has brought some charge on the treasury beyond its contributions. The other departments subsist wholly on the treasury, bringing no returns whatever into it. Why then should it be thought strange that the Post-Office Department, when charged with opening new sources of commerce to the merchants, new markets for our agricultural products, and placing our government and people in direct and independent communication with the other nations of the earth, should not be able to accomplish these great results upon a three-cent postage on letters, and on printed matter almost no postage at all?

The exact principle of justice on this whole subject is conceived to be that, in conducting its ordinary business of transmitting correspondence, it should be thrown entirely upon its own revenues. But whenever any service, on the sea or on the land, is required of it, mainly, if not exclusively, for national objects—such as the extension of our commerce, the spread of our population, and the development of the various resources of our country—the cost thereof, in all fairness, ought to be borne by the national treasury. These national purposes, if accomplished through the action of the Navy and War Departments, as they might be, would necessarily fall on the national treasury. What difference, then, should there be in this respect, when the same duties are superadded to the Post-Office Department, whose rate of postages, its only means of raising revenue, has been adjusted for very different purposes? It is in the light of this distinction that the operations of this Department ought to be examined. It is no longer a machine composed of horses, stages, and mail-bags, for the transmission mainly of the private correspondence of individuals; it has become the great pioneer of civilization and progress; it is the agent of commerce and intelligence; it visits every town and city, and comes home to almost every domicile of the country; and its high mission of individual and national usefulness ought not to be diminished by any misapprehension of its true character and functions. Applying these general remarks to the precise question at the present rate of postage, the Postmaster-General says, that the last reduction below five cents and the discount allowed on the already greatly reduced rates on printed matter, have greatly curtailed the usefulness of the Department in extending our mail service with that celerity, frequency, and uniformity, to all parts of our country, which the spirit of improvement in every department of business and of social life so earnestly demands. There are many por-

tions of the United States which have not yet received satisfactory mail facilities, and are not likely soon to do so with the present inadequate means of the Department.

In a compact and dense population, the present rate might bear some reasonable proportion to the actual cost of transportation; but in a widely-extended country, like the United States, now reaching from one ocean to the other, and in many portions of it thinly populated, three cents would seem to be altogether insufficient to meet the actual expense incurred by the Government in sending forward the letters. Heretofore our entire California correspondence has been conducted at ten cents, it being over 3,000 miles by the Panama route. Since the establishment of our various overland routes, however, all our great cities of the valley of the Mississippi are brought within the 3,000 miles, and therefore will pay the inadequate postage of only three cents. It is not likely that the people of the Atlantic States, and especially of their large cities, will be willing to pay ten cents on their extensive correspondence to California, Washington, and Oregon, while those in the Mississippi valley will have to pay only three cents. To avoid this source of dissatisfaction and the practical inconvenience of having different rates, regulated by distances, it is respectfully submitted to the superior wisdom of Congress whether one uniform rate of five cents for all distances would not enlarge the usefulness of the Department, diminish, if not entirely prevent, such heavy drafts on the treasury, and best promote the interest and convenience of the people.

In relation to the franking privilege, it is impossible to tell to what extent it is abused—not often, it is to be hoped, by those to whom it is allowed by law, but by others, who take the liberty to sign their names under some pretended authority to do so, or under no authority at all. It is impossible for the 28,000 postmasters of the United States to judge of the genuineness of the signatures, and therefore they can do nothing to prevent abuses. In times of national as well as State elections, the post-office conveyances are literally loaded down with partisan documents, for which it is evident somebody should pay, if it is expected that the Department should even approximate its own support. Now, if it be desired by Congress that all these documents be transmitted at public expense, let the stamps be furnished and charged to members who frank them, so that Congress may keep watch over the privileges granted to their own members, and prevent abuses which this Department has no power to detect.

NUMBER OF POST-OFFICES.—Whole number 30th June last, 27,977; of which 400 are of the class denominated presidential—

Number established during last fiscal year.....	2,121
Number discontinued.....	780
Increase.....	1,391
Number of postmasters appointed.....	8,284

Of these, 4,595 were to fill vacancies occasioned by resignation, 998 by removals, 278 by deaths, 292 by change of names and sites, and 2,121 on establishment of new offices.

Whole number of offices December 1, 1858.....28,518

TRANSPORTATION STATISTICS.—On 30th June last there were in operation 8,296 mail routes. The number of contractors was 7,044. The length of these routes is estimated at 200,808 miles; total annual transportation, 78,765,491 miles; and cost \$7,795,418, divided as follows:

	Miles.	Ann'l Transportation.	Cost.
Railroad.....	24,431	25,768,452	\$2,828,801
Steamboat.....	17,043	4,589,610	1,283,916
Coach.....	53,700	19,555,734	1,909,844
Inferior grades.....	165,429	28,876,695	1,823,357

Compared with the service reported June 30, 1857, there is an addition of 18,003 miles to the length of routes, and of \$1,178,372 to the cost, divided as follows:

	Miles.	Cost.
Railroad.....	1,901	\$268,454
Steamboat.....	1,798	241,916
Coach.....	4,371	499,018
Inferior routes.....	9,932	163,982

The lettings of new contracts for the term, commencing 1st July last, embraced twenty-one States and Territories of the Northwest, West, and Southwest, including California, New-Mexico, Utah, Oregon, and Washington.

The following table shows this new service, including the great overland route and Tehuantepec route:

Conveyance.	Miles of length.	Miles of Annual Transportation.	Cost.
Railroad.....	8,808	8,972,850	\$1,022,437
Steamboat.....	18,146	8,821,462	1,861,758
Coach.....	40,055	13,933,727	2,580,460
Inferior modes.....	115,547	18,997,016	1,520,555
Total.....	180,851	45,225,055	6,485,210

Compared with the services on the 30th June last, in the same States and Territories, the length of routes is increased 27,973 miles; the annual transportation thereon, 9,026,666; and the cost, 2,243,156.

On the 30th June, there were in the service—

440 route agents, at a compensation of.....	\$334,750 00
23 express route agents, at a compensation of.....	28,000 00
23 local agents, at a compensation of.....	29,989 00
464 mail messengers, at a compensation of.....	184,684 41
Total.....	577,373 41

This amount, with the increased cost of service under new contracts commencing July 1..... 2,243,156 00
 Added to the cost of service, as in operation June 30..... 7,795,418 00

Makes total for current year..... 10,615,947 41

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES.—The expenditures of the Department in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1858, amounted to... \$12,722,470 01

For transportation of inland mails, including payments to route agents, local agents, and mail messengers.....	\$7,821,556 83
For transportation of foreign mails, including service on Isthmus of Panama.....	424,497 34
For compensation of postmasters, clerks in post-offices, ship and steamboat letters, advertising, payment of letter carriers, postage stamps, stamped envelopes, balances on foreign mails, &c.....	4,476,415 84

12,722,470 01

Adding \$91 90 lost by bad debts, and subtracting \$925 85, gained on the suspense account, leaves net amount of expenditures \$12,721,686 56, as adjusted in the Auditor's Office.	
The gross revenue for the year 1858, including receipts from letter carriers and foreign postages, amounted to.....	\$7,486,792 86
Add permanent annual appropriations for transportation and delivery of free mail matter for Congress and the Executive Departments.....	700,000 00
Total revenue.....	8,186,792 86
Which falls short of the expenditures, as adjusted on the Auditor's books.....	4,584,843 70
The balance standing to the credit of the Department, on the books of the Auditor, on June 30, 1857, was.....	1,163,886 05
The receipts of Department from all sources during the year 1858.....	7,487,718 21
Amount of various appropriations drawn from treasury during the year, was.....	4,679,270 71
Total receipts.....	13,330,874 97
Whole amount of expenditures in year.....	12,722,561 91
Leaving to credit of Department, on July 1, 1858.....	608,313 06
ESTIMATE OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES IN 1859—	
Expenditures.....	14,776,520 00
Means.....	11,094,393 00
Deficiency.....	\$3,682,127 00

OCEAN MAILS.—The fourth section of the act of last session, above referred to, provides that "it shall not be lawful for the Postmaster-General to make any steamship or other new contract for carrying the mails on the sea for a longer period than two years, nor for any other compensation than the sea and inland postages on the mails so transported;" and the fifth section of said act confines the compensation to the sea postage only, if the transportation is by a foreign vessel. Can the service be obtained on these terms? The Postmaster-General believes that it may be. If deemed expedient to employ foreign vessels, it is certain that parties now stand ready to take the mails for the sea postage. But shall this service be relinquished entirely to foreign steamers? and if not, will American lines contract under the existing law? Nothing is clearer than that it is for the interest of this Government to employ American in preference to foreign steamers for the conveyance of our mails, if they can be secured on the terms authorized by law; but whether this may be done, is a matter of doubt. Save during the winter months, there would probably be no difficulty in getting the mails carried on these terms; but for a period so short as two years, it is hardly probable that contracts with American lines could be obtained to carry regularly the year round. To secure to such lines their due share of the postages, it is essential that perfect regularity should be observed in winter as well as during the other months of the year, by at least a weekly departure and arrival on either side. The want of regularity heretofore has had the effect to give the advantage to the British

lines. The evidence is now before me, that of the correspondence, for instance, between the United States and Switzerland, out of 5,000 letters, 4,800 were transmitted by British vessels, owing, it is believed, mainly to the circumstance of the known regularity of these vessels in sailing on a given day. Why may not the same regularity be established and maintained by American ships? Let this be done, and no good reason is perceived why they may not carry an equal proportion of the mails, the postage on which would afford a fair compensation for the service.

SOUTHERN OCEAN MAILS.—As calculated to furnish the requisite facilities of communication between Europe and the Southern and Northwestern States, the projected lines between Norfolk and England and between New-Orleans and Bordeaux, in France, are among the most important to be established. It is unnecessary to point out the advantages these lines would be certain to have in developing the resources of those States. They could not fail to be otherwise than highly satisfactory. The lines to Bremen and Havre, touching at Southampton, should be continued, and, if practicable, increased to semi-monthly service. A Bremen company is now running fine steamers semi-monthly between New-York and Bremerhaven, carrying the mails for the postages. If this can be done by parties in Bremen, why not, also, by enterprising citizens of the United States, and thus secure a regular and permanent weekly communication? Such an arrangement would not only afford the best and cheapest means for the transmission of the mails between the United States and continental Europe, and it may be to and from the East Indies by the way of Trieste, but it would also be highly advantageous in a commercial point of view. With reference to an American overland communication to India, via Trieste, the Postmaster-General is credibly informed that negotiations are pending to this end between the Lloyds steamship companies of Bremen and Trieste, and the intermediate railroad companies; and that it is intended to take effect so soon as a weekly line is established between the United States and Bremen. It is believed that this route will furnish cheaper and better facilities of communication than any existing route.

As regards a line from some suitable port in the United States to Brazil, and the extension of the California line from Panama to the South Pacific coast, which, for commercial as well as for mail purposes, it is so desirable should be established, and the line from New-Orleans to Vera Cruz, it is apparent that the postages to be derived therefrom would defray but a trifling portion of the expense of the service. The Postmaster-General regards it as highly important that the line to Vera Cruz should be continued. From the first of July to the first of November of this year, there was no mail upon this line, and temporary service is now performed for the postages only, in the hope that Congress will immediately authorize the making of a contract at a reasonable compensation. The Postmaster-General respectfully recommends this, and that the same authority be granted respecting lines to Brazil and the South Pacific. The contract on the Charleston and Havana line will expire on the

30th of June next, and this, also, it is apparent, will require other aid than what could be derived from the postages to sustain it. The Vera Cruz and Havana lines, as well as the lines to California, should be classed as coastwise, and, whether susceptible of being sustained from the postages or not, should not be subject to that restriction.

In his last annual report the Postmaster-General recommended an appropriation for one year's extension of the mail steamship contract on the Pacific, between Panama, San Francisco, and Astoria, in order that the service by the connecting lines on the Atlantic and Pacific sides of the Isthmus of Panama might terminate simultaneously, as originally intended by Congress. A specific appropriation for this purpose was made in the act of June 14, 1858; but as the fourth section of said act contains the provision, also, above mentioned, that the compensation under any new ocean mail steamship contract shall be limited to the postages on the mails so transported, the question was raised as to whether this provision was intended by Congress to apply to the proposed extension of the Pacific mail steamship contract. This question was submitted to the Attorney-General, who decided that it could not have been so intended; and, accordingly, the contract with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, which expired on the 1st of October, 1858, was extended at the same rate of compensation to the 1st of October, 1859, the date of expiration of the contract on this side of the Isthmus, the company agreeing also to transport from the Pacific terminus of the Tehuantepec transit, to and from San Francisco, all mails regularly conveyed between New-Orleans and such Pacific terminus of the Tehuantepec route, without additional compensation.

The New-York and New-Orleans Steamship Company, running a line of steamers between those cities via Havana, heretofore carrying only a ship-letter mail, have entered into contract with the Department for semi-monthly trips, except in July, commencing 1st of August last, and to continue till 30th June, 1860, at a compensation limited to the sea and inland postages on the mails transported. Up to 12th November, six round trips have been performed, the average pay per trip amounting to \$903.

TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE AND EAST INDIAN COMMERCE.—By the time the contracts for the California lines, *via* Panama and Tehuantepec, expire, on the 1st October, 1859, it is probable that the route by Lake Nicaragua will have been re-opened, and in successful operation. This presents the question, whether one, two, or all three of these routes shall thereafter be employed for mail purposes. The Tehuantepec route is the shortest and most readily protected against interruptions; but it will be comparatively too new, and the line of staging too long, to furnish with certainty adequate and satisfactory communication between our Atlantic and Pacific possessions. While it is destined, no doubt, to become a transit of the first importance, it will deserve the highest patronage and encouragement, still it cannot supersede the necessity of one or more routes through Central America. Indeed, every year is demonstrating that the United States may need, not only for postal, but for commercial purposes of vast magnitude, additional transit routes.

The Panama Isthmus route is now used only under a contract with the railroad company, who, in turn, hold it by a charter granted by the local government. This company might, at any time, refuse to contract with the United States, or its demands for transportation might be so exorbitant as to amount to a prohibition. After much controversy, the department has not been able to reduce the price of transportation of the mails upon it below one hundred thousand dollars per annum—a price believed to be entirely too high for only 48 miles of railroad; and there will be the same exposure to exorbitant demands upon the Nicaragua route under the direction of a private company. To relieve the department from a condition so dependent, as well as to create a competition which might prevent extortion, it is of the highest importance that the route by Nicaragua should be re-opened, and its undisturbed use for the transportation of the mails, passengers, troops, and munitions of war, secured by the solemn guarantees of a public treaty. Without this, in view of the unstable condition of the local governments of Central America, the safety and security of transportation can hardly be relied on. Contracts given by these governments to individuals or companies, in the absence of a regular treaty, under which, if necessary, the power of the United States might be invoked to enforce fulfilment, may be irregularly, if not unjustly revoked, and the department be embarrassed by the rival claims of contending parties, unable to determine satisfactorily with whom it should contract.

The late treaties with China and Japan, and the rapid growth and vast mineral resources of Australia, have made all the transit routes of Central America of increased importance to the United States. By them the Atlantic section of our country would be enabled equally with that of the Pacific to participate in that Asiatic commerce which made Tyre, Alexandria, Venice, and Genoa, the market-houses of the world. It is the almost exclusive enjoyment of this trade which makes Great Britain the first commercial power of modern times.

The United States, from her mediate position between Europe and Asia, and from her agricultural productions, particularly those of cotton and tobacco, ought now to participate largely in the advantages of this trade. This she would be enabled to do by the free use of these transits, and by other communications already opened and in successful operation between the Atlantic and Pacific States, especially when these communications are taken in connection with the establishment of a steam mail line from San Francisco to Japan and China. Such a line, it is confidently believed, would draw to it not only the correspondence and travel of our own country, but of Great Britain and most of the continent of Europe. These, with its commercial profits, would probably sustain it without any other subsidy than the postages on the mails conveyed. After the first three years, the Department feels confident that no subsidy whatever would be required to sustain it. Before even three years will expire, there is every probability that a line of telegraphs will be completed from San Francisco to New-York, and, indeed, to every important

ty on the Atlantic. Such a line is already made, as we understand, nearly to the summit of the great Nevada. Letters written England, and many parts of the continent, are transmitted by samers to Boston, New-York, &c., in from nine to eleven days. They can be transmitted by telegraph to San Francisco in one or 70 days at most, and thence shipped by the mail line to Japan, and hina, Australia, &c.—No other mode of communication can be as peditious as this; and such correspondence would, therefore, constitute, with the regular full letter correspondence passing through this country, no inconsiderable element for the support of such a line. It is a very singular fact, that the minister from Japan to the United States, instead of coming eastward direct to San Francisco, and thence to Washington, is expected to go to England by the Isthmus of Suez, and thence take passage to the city of New-York. So our ministers to China must go and return by the same circuitous route. The probability that by suitable exertions much of this trade, travel, and correspondence, can be made to pass over this continent, to be found in the strenuous exertions now making by Great Britain to secure the same through her own Canadian possessions. This valour of effort is for the greatest commerce of the world, and should all forth, as doubtless it will, the energies of both nations to secure each portions of it as each shall think itself fairly entitled to receive.

ART. IX.—THE SOUTH AND PROGRESS.

SENATOR HAMMOND'S BARNEWELL SPEECH.

This able and patriotic speech, with its clear and statesmanlike views, has attracted public attention; but as a man we are disposed to discuss and controvert some of its positions.

Gov. Hammond intimates that no new slave territories are to be had, and that the South must remain quiescent with its present area of slave territory. To this political doctrine we are not inclined to submit. Since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, the area of slave territory in the United States has been extended by the purchase of Louisiana and the Floridas, and by the annexation of Texas. The democratic party, since the days of President Jefferson, has been the uniform advocate of expansion and progress, and to urge that the democracy of the South should now come to a "*dead halt*," and ground arms to the Black Republicans, is a sentiment which many here in Texas, on the outer verge of the Southern frontier, are disinclined to adopt. We believe there is more slave territory to be acquired—there are countries we may obtain legitimately, where Southern men may go with their property, and *continue* their domestic institutions. The right

bank of the Rio Grande, from Arizona to the mouth of that noble river, stretches out before us, inviting occupation, and almost begging a protectorate. There Southern men may go—there they may establish their institutions, and cause their property to be protected, by establishing a new State on the most legitimate basis, *the consent of the governed*. With Texas as the boundary on the *left* bank of the Rio Grande, and a territory reaching to the Sierra del Madre on the *right*, a new State can be added to the South, by the assent of the rancheros and voting population, and slavery, which was planted there by the Spaniards, under the benevolent scheme of the pious Las Casas, and flourished for so many years, may be again successfully revived. The addition of one or several Southern States to the Union will not, we are aware, restore that equilibrium, the loss of which was so much deplored by Mr. Calhoun; but the acquisition of another Southern State, on the southern side of the Rio Grande, will give strength to the South, *in* the Union or *out* of it.

Senator Hammond intimates that the South may be compelled to go out of the Union, but he suggests not yet. He cannot, however, deny the possibility, if not probability, of disunion, and it is for that contingency, serious as it may be, that the South ought to be prepared. The Senator well remarks, that before “these Southern States will be placed in the condition of St. Domingo or Jamaica, or one at all approximating to it, they will rend this Union into fragments, and plunge the world in ruin.” We trust that by a close union of the South, and the adoption of the expansive principle, we may anticipate a more happy catastrophe. The South vindicating her rights in defence of her institutions, may bring the world to her own terms—obtain an acknowledgment of a distinct nationality, and, by treaty stipulations, secure adequate protection for her rights and property.

Thousands of rifles are sleeping in Texas and the Southern States, ready to awake at the call of a leader, and become an “Army of Occupation” in that broad territory between Monterey and the Rio Grande. They will be ready to establish a protectorate over that portion of Northern Mexico, or annex it to the Union, under a democratic form of government—at all events, in the Union or out of it, to hold the territory ready for united action with the South, if, in the course of human events, the Federal Constitution should be abrogated by the aggressions of abolitionists.

We cannot subscribe to the sentiment of the distinguished Senator, that no new slave territory is to be had by the South. It appears to be a novel application of the “*masterly inac-*

tivity" doctrine, formerly applied by Senator Calhoun to the acquisition of territory. The South ought not, we submit, to manacle herself, and be perpetually inactive. There is danger that if in the Union she cannot expand her area, she may be required to contract it.

The Hon. Senator takes, we believe, an unsafe view of the Indian Reserves west of Arkansas, &c. The Indian Territory south and west of Arkansas is non-slaveholding. The Indians are sound on this question, but their country has attracted the serpent eye of abolitionism, and it is already gloating over its prospective prey. The South must be vigilant, or it may find the Indian Territory, covering so large an area, *free-soiled*, in a manner similar to that of Kansas. In the event that Black Republicanism should seize on the Indian Territory, forcing its way down to the northern bank of Red River, and to the line of Louisiana, we of Texas would be reminded of the last appeal of that "*noble old Roman*," Gov. Troup, to the Georgians, on an anticipated conflict with the Federal Government, and adopting its sentiment, say: "*Men of the South, argument is exhausted, stand to your arms.*"

As to the quiescent state into which the South, as the Senator thinks, must subside, we disagree with him. An echo from the grave of the lamented Quitman, may remind us that the "absorption of Mexican territory" once held a prominent place in the views of prominent statesmen and warriors; and that policy among Texans is not forgotten, but has its warm advocates.

We have expressed our sentiments freely, because we believe the political policy of *non-expansion* to the South is not compatible with her self-security, nor supported by history, in the prior acquisitions of slave territory added to us since the purchase of Louisiana, and the acquisition of Texas by annexation.

LEON COUNTY, Texas.

J.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, 1857-'58.

THE following tables are taken from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, recently submitted to Congress. The total value of the dutiable imports for the last fiscal year was \$202,293,875, against \$294,160,835 for 1856-'7, and \$257,684,236 for the year 1855-'6. The total value of free goods last year was \$80,819,275, against \$66,729,306 for 1856-'7, and \$56,955,706 for 1855-'6. Of the free goods received last year, \$64,756,975 were free by the tariff of 1846, and \$15,662,300 were made free by the act of 1857.

Comparative value of certain articles of foreign production imported into the United States for the fiscal years ending June 30th.

ARTICLES.	1867.	1868.	ARTICLES.	1857.	1858.
Tea, free	\$5,757,800..	\$5,777,293	India rubber	\$832,058..	\$666,583
Tea, dutiable	17,315..	484,620	Hair, unmanufactured	453,705..	268,473
Coffee, free	22,386,879..	18,341,081	Linseed	3,003,824..	3,243,174
Coffee, dutiable	39,879..	28,759	Wine in casks	2,448,913..	1,862,548
Copper sheathing	351,311..	111,698	Wine in bottles	1,825,292..	1,383,840
Do. bars and pigs	1,459,513..	1,068,551	Brandy	2,527,262..	2,232,452
Do. ore	1,440,314..	1,131,362	Grain spirits	1,125,160..	1,158,517
Tin, bars		228,426	Other spirits	218,907..	324,906
Tin, blocks	1,023,210	470,023	Cordials	92,306..	104,269
Tin, pigs		594,258	Beer, &c., in casks	221,290..	146,096
Tin, plates	4,789,538..	3,842,068	Beer in bottles	628,550..	483,039
Iron, bar	4,423,935..	3,318,913	Molasses	8,259,175..	4,116,759
Do. rod	809,901..	426,499	Sugars, brown	42,614,604..	23,317,435
Do. hoop	324,675..	273,326	Sugars, white	86,820..	109,887
Do. sheet	1,082,389..	946,073	Sugars, loaf, &c.	68,906..	1,001
Do. pig	1,001,742..	739,949	Tobacco	1,358,835..	1,255,831
Do. scrap	111,680..	87,113	Cigars	4,221,096..	4,123,208
Do. railroad	7,465,594..	2,987,576	Snuff	2,626..	5,153
Steel, cast & German	1,775,292..	1,147,773	Other manuf. tobacco	18,898..	22,898
Do. other	858,322..	725,338	Cordage, tarred	92,099..	73,627
Do. man. unsp.		970,133	Cordage, untarred	64,433..	96,633
Copper, manufactured	166,704..	104,032	Twine	59,957..	73,989
Lead	2,306,768..	1,972,243	Hemp	423,533..	331,307
Watches	3,823,039..	2,118,838	Manilla, Sun, &c.	2,353,891..	2,298,709
Buttons and moulds	926,049..	495,929	Jute, Sisal, &c.	334,328..	
Glass, silvered	243,762..	198,109	Codilla	92,520..	70,623
Glass, plate	525,061..	397,310	Bags (not woollen)	1,448,125..	971,126
Glass, window	641,093..	626,747	Salt	2,032,583..	1,124,920
Paper, writing	343,240..	236,322	Coal	772,663..	772,925
Paper hangings	234,591..	104,758	Potatoes	87,572..	97,160
Gloves	1,559,332..	1,449,672	Fish, dried	96,607..	111,709
China & earthenware	4,037,064..	3,215,236	Herrings and shad.	49,213..	18,906
Hides, raw	10,010,090..	9,881,358			

Exports of Domestic Produce from the United States to Foreign Ports for the years ending June 30th.

ARTICLES.	1857.	1858.	ARTICLES.	1857.	1858.
OF THE SEA.			Vegetable Food—		
Oil—perm.	\$1,216,888..	\$1,097,506	Wheat	\$22,240,857..	\$0,061,504
Do. whale & other fish	393,665..	597,107	Flour	25,682,316..	19,328,814
Whalebone	1,307,822..	1,105,223	Indian corn	5,164,666..	3,259,039
Spermaceti	34,917..	66,012	Cornmeal	957,791..	877,692
Sperm candles	35,121..		Rye meal	115,828..	60,235
Wh. dried or smoked	570,318..	487,007	Rye, oats, &c.	680,108..	642,764
Do. pickled	211,383..	197,441	Biscuit	563,256..	472,372
Total	\$3,739,64	\$3,550,293	Potatoes	205,616..	205,791
OF THE FOREST.			Onions	77,048..	75,626
Staves and headings	\$2,055,980..	\$1,975,852	Apples	135,280..	74,363
Shingles	212,805..	695,451	Rice	2,290,400..	1,870,578
Boards, planks, &c.	4,170,686..	3,428,530			
Hewn timber	516,735..	292,163	Cotton, Sea Island	131,575,859..	131,386,661
Other lumber	638,409..	1,240,425	Tobacco	20,280,772..	17,069,767
Oak bark & other dyes	322,754..	392,835	Flaxseed	625..	
Manufactures of wood	3,158,424..	2,234,678	Cloverseed	530,100..	332,250
Tar and pitch	298,610..	16,067	Hemp	46,807..	47,876
Rosin and turpentine	1,544,572..	1,404,210	Brown sugar	190,012..	375,062
Ashes, pots and pearls	696,267..	654,744	Hops	84,852..	41,704
Gin-seed	58,831..	193,716	Total	\$227,558,727	\$201,632,608
Hides and furs	1,116,041..	1,002,878			
Total	\$14,099,711	\$13,475,671			
OF AGRICULTURE.					
Of Animals—					
Beef	\$1,218,318..	2,081,856			
Tallow	632,286..	824,970			
Hides	624,867..	873,753			
Horned Cattle	144,840..	1,218,769			
Butter	593,084..	841,863			
Cheese	647,423..	731,910			

ARTICLES.	1857.	1858.	ARTICLES.	1857.	1858.
MANUFACTURES.			Hemp bags, &c.....	33,687..	87,766
Wax.....	91,983..	85,926	Wearing apparel.....	333,442..	219,695
Refined sugar.....	368,206..	200,724	Earthenware, &c.....	34,256..	86,783
Chocolate.....	1,932..	2,304	Combs and buttons....	39,799..	46,349
Spirits (from grain) ..	1,248,234..	476,722	Brushes and brooms....	7,824..	49,153
Do. (from molasses) ..	1,216,635..	1,367,091	Billiard apparatus....	733..	8,701
Do. (from other ma-			Umbrellas & parasols	6,846..	6,539
terials).....	120,011..	249,432	Morocco, &c.....	2,119..	13,699
Molasses.....	108,003..	115,993	Fire engines.....	21,524..	7,220
Vinegar.....	30,788..	24,336	Printing materials....	62,747..	106,493
Beer, ale, porter and			Musical instruments.	127,748..	99,776
cider.....	43,733..	69,532	Books and maps.....	277,647..	208,774
Linseed oil.....	54,144..	48,225	Stationery.....	224,767..	228,991
Spirits turpentine ...	741,346..	1,089,282	Paints and varnish....	223,320..	181,217
Household furniture ..	879,448..	832,499	Glassware.....	179,900..	214,608
Carriages, cars, &c....	476,394..	777,921	Tinware.....	6,622..	24,186
Hats.....	254,208..	129,625	Manufac. of pewter		
Saddlery.....	45,222..	65,280	and lead.....	4,818..	27,327
Candles, adamantine,			Marble and stone....	111,468..	136,590
&c.....	677,898..	628,599	India rubber boots and		
Soap.....	530,085..	305,704	shoes.....	331,126..	118,931
Snuff.....	11,526..	10,109	Do. other manufac. of	312,387..	197,448
Tobacco, manufac'd ..	1,447,027..	2,400,115	Gold and silver leaf ..	15,477..	26,286
Leather.....	497,714..	606,589	Jewelry, &c.....	28,070..	28,319
Boots and shoes.....	813,995..	663,905	Artificial flowers....		582
Cables and cordage ...	286,163..	212,840	Trunks and valises....	87,748..	59,441
Gunpowder.....	398,244..	366,173	Lard oil.....	92,490..	60,958
Salt.....	190,699..	162,650	Oil cake.....	1,186,980..	1,438,861
Lead.....	66,624..	48,119	Bricks, lime & cement	68,002..	103,821
Iron—pig.....	63,390..	24,087	Unenumerated manu-		
Bar.....	64,596..	26,082	fact'ies.....	3,292,722..	2,601,768
Nails.....	279,327..	156,762			
Castings.....	299,967..	464,415	Coal.....	616,861..	558,014
Other manufactures of	4,197,687..	4,059,828	Ice.....	219,816..	300,825
Copper, brass, &c.....	607,054..	1,985,223	Quicksilver.....	665,490..	129,184
Medical drugs.....	886,909..	681,278	Gold & silver bullion..	31,300,980..	22,933,306
Cottons—printed and			Gold and silver coin..	28,777,372..	19,474,040
colored.....	1,785,685..	2,069,194	Raw produce not spec-		
Cottons—white other			ified.....	1,266,928..	1,561,940
than duck.....	3,463,230..	1,598,136	Total exports of do-		
Cottons—duck.....	252,109..	183,889	mestic produce.....	\$338,985,065	\$293,758,279
Do. other manufac.	614,153..	1,800,285			
Hemp thread.....	1,066..	1,320			

2.—COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK—REVIVAL.

The *Journal of Commerce* furnishes some interesting comparative statistics.

Foreign Imports at New-York for eleven months, from January 1st.

	1856.	1857.	1858.
Entered for consumption.....	\$148,562,621	\$120,107,089	\$93,167,226
Entered for warehousing.....	84,650,286	70,033,885	24,115,146
Free goods.....	16,760,950	19,063,434	20,039,083
Specie and bullion.....	1,667,549	12,216,010	2,200,967
Total entered at port.....	\$201,641,405	\$221,421,318	\$139,522,442
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	24,097,168	87,024,982	35,684,657

It will be seen that the imports for eleven months of the current year have been \$81,898,876 below the corresponding total for 1857, and \$62,018,903 below the total for the same period of 1856.

Exports from New-York to Foreign Ports for eleven months, from January 1st.

	1856.	1857.	1858.
Domestic produce.....	\$71,007,027	\$58,970,897	\$50,249,632
Foreign merchandise (free)	875,638	3,726,297	1,410,292
Do. (dutiable).....	2,887,922	6,104,554	3,800,167
Specie and bullion.....	35,439,585	36,825,122	24,108,228
Total exports.....	\$110,209,903	\$105,626,870	\$79,568,219
Total, exclusive of Specie.....	74,770,318	68,801,748	66,268,019

Receipts for Customs at New-York, from January 1st.

	1856.	1857.	1858.
First quarter.....	\$11,642,681 48	\$13,406,813 26	\$8,918,711 60
Second quarter.....	10,808,484 29	6,886,708 05	5,170,400 97
Third quarter.....	14,430,078 08	13,183,832 90	9,606,338 97
In October.....	3,391,230 97	867,534 99	2,054,834 43
In November.....	2,774,845 63	1,121,792 70	1,706,520 47
Total since January 1	\$48,137,300 43	\$34,466,681 90	\$24,465,835 44

3.—THE WRECKING SYSTEM OF FLORIDA.

In the new work on "Wreck and Salvage," by Judge Marvin, (from whose decisions there is no appeal, except to the Supreme Court of the United States,) he furnishes much valuable matter for underwriters. He says that prior to 1821, when Florida belonged to Spain, wreckers from the Bahama Islands constantly cruised along the Florida reefs, and saved large amounts of shipwrecked property, which they carried to Nassau. In 1821, the country was transferred to the United States by Spain; and soon after that event a few houses were built, and a small settlement of Americans was made by John W. Simonton, Pardon O. Green, and others, on the Island called by the Spaniards Cayo Hueso (Bone Island), and by the Americans Key West. In 1822, Congress established a port of entry at this place. The settlers built wharves and storehouses, and were soon in a condition to receive and store goods, and repair and refit vessels of moderate size. In 1825, Congress prohibited the carrying of wrecked goods found on the coast to any foreign place, and required all such goods to be brought to some port of entry in the United States.

This broke up the business of the Bahama wreckers, and Key West became the central point for the business of wrecking on the coast. In 1828, Congress established a court at Key West, vested with admiralty jurisdiction. The judge was empowered to license wrecking vessels. This court was abolished by the admission of Florida into the Union in 1845, and a District Court of the United States was established in its place in 1847. The judge is authorized, as in the act of 1828, to license wrecking vessels. The act reads, "No vessel or master thereof shall be regularly employed in the business of wrecking on the coast of Florida, without the license of the judge of said court; and before licensing any vessel or master, the judge shall be satisfied that the vessel is seaworthy, and properly and sufficiently fitted and equipped for the business of saving property shipwrecked and in distress, and that the master thereof is trustworthy and innocent of any fraud or misconduct in relation to any property shipwrecked or saved on said coast."

It has been held by the judge, that embezzlement of wrecked goods, voluntary running a vessel aground under the pretence of piloting her, colluding with the master of a vessel wrecked or in distress, or corrupting him by any unlawful present or promise, are, severally, good causes for withholding or revoking the license. The act does not apply to trading or transient vessels, but only to vessels engaged in wrecking as a business. Forty-seven vessels, averaging fifty tons each, and carrying about eight men each, have licenses at the present time—1858. This number is fully adequate to all the wants of commerce, and encouragement ought not to be given to any increase. Some of these vessels, fully one half, associate fishing for the Havana market with wrecking. Licensed wreckers are required, by a rule of court, to institute judicial proceedings for salvage against all property found by them derelict or abandoned, at sea or on the coast.

4.—THE COFFEE TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

The New-Orleans Prices Current says:

The commercial year opened with a large stock of coffee on hand, and the market wore a heavy appearance during the first four months, prices falling to a point that materially checked the import from Brazil, and induced the transshipment of several cargoes to Europe. The total imports of the year amount

to 286,228 bags, all from Brazil, except 1,268 bags from Cuba, and the market value, estimated at the average price of the season, is about \$2,828,460.

The following table shows the particulars of Import, Stock, &c., for the year ended August 31st, 1858 :

Estimated Stock out of Grocers' hands on 1st Sept., 1857,	
of all kinds	bags.. 107,000
Imports direct from—	
Rio de Janeiro.....	284,955
Cuba, &c.,.....	1,268—286,223
Received coastwise for sale.....	81,828
Making a supply of.....	424,549
Total supply last year.....	488,371
Decrease this year.....	63,822
Total supply as above.....	424,549
Deduct transhipped to Europe.....	14,029
Stock on hand August 31st, 1858.....	29,000—43,028
Taken for consumption in 1857-'58.....	881,520
Do. do. 1856-'57.....	875,825
Do. do. 1855-'56.....	883,298

The annexed table presents a comparison of the direct imports into this port for the past fifteen years :

	From Rio de Janeiro.	From Cuba, Laguayra, &c.
1844.....	161,082.....	62,867
1845.....	167,669.....	4,094
1846.....	215,081.....	10,899
1847.....	205,111.....	43,931
1848.....	239,371.....	8,590
1849.....	299,129.....	16,341
1850.....	225,018.....	20,627
1851.....	274,600.....	10,867
1852.....	353,616.....	12,525
1853.....	388,412.....	10,812
1854.....	228,660.....	11,057
1855.....	341,138.....	2,228
1856.....	379,232.....	10,885
1857.....	427,323.....	6,057
1858.....	284,955.....	1,268

5.—TOBACCO TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1857-'58.

AS PREPARED FOR THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE N. O. PRICES CURRENT.

TOBACCO.—The stock remaining on hand, on the 1st September last, including all on shipboard not cleared, was 13,711 hogsheads, and of which there were estimated to be unsold, in first and second-hands, about 9,000 hogsheads, and the quotations, at the opening of the season, were as follows :

LEAF—Factory	8 @ 9
“ Planter's	9½ @ 10½
LEAF—Inferior to Common.....	11 @ 12½
“ Fair.....	13 @ 18½
“ Fine.....	14½ @ 16½
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.....	15 @ 18
FROSTED.....	7 @ 9½

In the early part of September some 5,000 hogsheads were sold at about this range, but subsequently the market was dull with sales of only a few hundred hogsheads, the business of the month summing up less than 6,000 hogsheads closing with nominal quotations. The month's receipts were 888 hogsheads. In October the financial difficulties brought the market nearly to a stand, but

two or three buyers were enabled to operate at reduced prices, and the sales amounted to about 2000 hogsheads against the receipts of 225 hogsheads, the closing rates, it was said, indicating a decline of fully 1 cent $\$$ lb., but the market was too unsettled for quotations. A similar state of affairs existed in November, the sales of the month reaching barely 700 hogsheads with receipts of 267 hogsheads, the stock on sale being only 2,000 to 2,500 hogsheads. In December the arrivals were rather more liberal, amounting to 1,171 hogsheads, but the market continued inactive, and sales of only 1,150 hogsheads were reported. Prices, during that month and the previous one, were understood to be considerably lower, but were not made public in a single instance. The market opened dull in January, but we were enabled to resume quotations, which are as follows :

NEW CROP.

LUGS—Factory	— @ —
“ Planters’	5 @ 6
LEAF—Inferior to Common	6½ @ 7½
“ Fair	8 @ 8½
“ Fine	9 @ 10
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.	10 @ 11

OLD CROP—EXTREME PRICES.

Low Refused to Choice Selected

7 @ 14 and 15.
These figures indicate a decline of 5 @ 6 and 7c. $\$$ lb. since September. The month's sales were about 2,900 hogsheads, against receipts of 2,867 hogsheads. During February the market wore a firmer appearance, and toward the close prices advanced ½ @ ¾c. $\$$ lb., the sales of the month embracing 5,800 hogsheads, and the receipts 5,420 hogsheads. In March the movement was very fair and the supply liberal, sellers generally having the advantage. The sales of the month were 6,750 hogsheads, against receipts of 7,990 hogsheads, the closing rates showing a further advance of ½ @ ¾c. as indicated by the quotations as follows

LUGS—Factory	— @ —
“ Planters’	5½ @ 7
LEAF—Inferior to Common	7½ @ 8
“ Fair	8½ @ 8½
“ Fine	9½ @ 10½
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.	10½ @ 11½

OLD CROP—EXTREME PRICES.

Low Refused to Choice Selected

7 @ 13 and 14.
April opened with a good demand and a firm market, and a further improvement of ½ @ ¾c. was realized on the Fine and Choice grades, but with large receipts and an accumulating stock the advance was lost, and at the close our quotations were reduced to the following range :

LUGS—Factory	— @ —
“ Planters’	6 @ 7
LEAF—Inferior to Common	7 @ 7½
“ Fair	7½ @ 8½
“ Fine	8½ @ 10
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.	10½ @ 11½ and 12

OLD CROP—EXTREME PRICES.

Low Refused to Choice Selected

7 @ 13 and 14.
The reported sales of the month were 9,500 hogsheads, and the receipts 18,710 hogsheads, a stock of about 12,000 hogsheads remaining unsold. By the middle of May the stock had accumulated to about 20,000 hogsheads, and buyers obtained further concessions, the market closing at about the following range of prices :

LUGS—Factory	— @ —
“ Planters’	5½ @ 6½
LEAF—Inferior to Common	6½ @ 7
“ Fair	7½ @ 7½
“ Fine	8 @ 9
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.	9½ @ 11

The sales of the month were about 12,000 hogsheads, against receipts of 20,963 hogsheads. During the greater part of June the market wore a heavy appearance, though holders generally refused offers materially below previous figures, the market closing nominally unchanged. The month's sales embraced about 9,200 hogsheads, and the receipts 16,481 hogsheads. In July the business opened with a stock on sale of about 18,000 hogsheads, which was reduced by some large operations; and with a considerable falling off in the receipts, holders generally held the advantage, especially in light descriptions, without establishing any quotable advance. The reported sales of the month were 9,600 hogsheads, against receipts of 6,522 hogsheads. In the early part of August the market was very firm, but with few buyers coming forward until the latter part of the month. Heavy descriptions, Clarksville, &c., have been dull and neglected for some time past, but have latterly met with a better demand, and close at firm prices. The sales of the month are barely 3,600 hhds., against receipts of 4,389 hhds. The range at the close was about

LEAF—Factory.....	5 @ 5½
“ Planters’	5 @ 6½
LEAF—Inferior to Common.....	6½ @ 7½
“ Fair.....	7½ @ 8
“ Fine.....	8½ @ 9
“ Choice Clarksville, &c.....	9½ @ 11

The range of the season for stems has been 2 @ 2½c. $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. The total receipts at this port since 1st September, as shown by our tables, are 87,141 hhds., which amount includes 9,514 hhds. strips and 2,469 hhds. stems; and the quantity inspected in the same period is 68,075 hhds., of which 1,787 hhds. were Marion County. The year closes with a stock on hand, including all on ship-board, of 28,418 hhds., of which there are estimated to be unsold, in first and second hands, about 9,000 hhds. The receipts thus show an increase compared with last year of 32,074 hhds., and a large increase compared with any year since 1851-52, when they amounted to 89,655 hhds. The quality of the crop has been superior to that of last year, so far as the absence of frosted descriptions is concerned, but the leaf has been deficient in substance, and has not compared favorably with the sound qualities of the last crop.

The growing crop of tobacco, like that of our Southern staples, suffered from the late spring frosts, but the weather during the greater part of the summer has been rather favorable. The recent accounts from some quarters however, are less satisfactory, and especially from the Western district and on Green River, where there are complaints of injury from wet weather. At this period it is too early to venture upon any estimates as to the amount, or judgment as to the quality of the crop, both of which must depend mainly upon the character of the weather from this time forward. One hhd. of the new crop, the first of the season, was received on the 22d of August from Tennessee, nine days earlier than the first receipts last year. It classed Fair, but was much fired in curing, and sold at the fancy price of 12c. $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

6.—THE HARBOR OF CHARLESTON.

We have received with satisfaction the Report on the Harbor of Charleston, which has recently appeared in pamphlet form, and in this and the next issue of the Review will refer to its valuable material.

In the report of Captain Cullum, U. S. Engineers, we perceive that the work of deepening the channel has been eminently successful so far, and that a sufficient outlet of water at high tide has been secured. The work is still progressing.

Whether the deepening will remain of permanent value, is answered by Captain Cullum.

The query cannot be positively answered, except by *Æolus* or *Neptune*, who command the winds and waves; but, in my humble opinion, our task will not be complete until the sands have been rolled back upon the shore.

Judging from past indications, there is every probability of the channel not materially changing when once opened, except by the influence of southerly storms (fortunately generally of short duration) blowing transversely to its direction, which might deposit sand from the shoals forming its southern bank. To the northeast it is protected from storms by Sullivan's and Long Islands, to the east by Rattlesnake Shoals, to the southeast and south by Drunken Dick, and from all other quarters by the mainland or adjoining islands; so that it may be regarded as a land-locked channel. All past indications are in favor of its remaining open. In De Barré's chart of 1780, it is represented as a mere sluice, probably because it was not sounded out thoroughly. Since 1821, when there was but six feet at low water, it has been deepening, having acquired a depth of over eight feet in 1852, of ten feet in 1854, since when it has remained nearly stationary up to the time of our commencing dredging. This deepening is, doubtless, due in a great measure to the erection of the artificial rock island for the foundation of Fort Sumter, but more particularly to the building of Bowman's jetty, both of which have tended to throw a larger volume of water through a narrower channel, which being thus restricted, had necessarily to excavate a deeper opening for its discharge. Its direction is also favorable to its permanency, being nearly east and west—the flood tidal wave sweeping directly through it, with a velocity of two-and-a-half miles per hour, thus thoroughly scouring it twice every twenty-four hours. As further evidence of its probable permanency, it may be stated that the great September gale of 1854, and many severe storms since, have produced little or no change in the channel. Since our dredging operation commenced, there have been no indications of filling up; but, on the contrary, the bottom where we have been at work yet remains strongly marked with deep holes, formed by the suction-hose of the centrifugal pump by which the dredging is executed.

"But suppose that sand should occasionally be washed in, which is not impossible, nor, perhaps, improbable, particularly during a violent southeast storm, how trifling would be the cost of removing it when compared with the vast advantages accruing to the commerce of Charleston from an open channel of twenty feet in depth! The difference of marine insurance alone would probably pay the cost; and the fuel saved by steamers bound north, by shortening their voyages some fifteen miles, would make a considerable item toward it."

Referring to the extraordinary powers of the dredging machine which is being used for the purpose of deepening the bar, Captain Cullum says:

"This simple and admirable machine, the only one, according to my experience, suited to work in a rough sea-way, was invented by Mr. Nathaniel H. Leiby, of Charleston, South Carolina. Upon first seeing its model in 1855, being satisfied that it was constructed upon correct hydraulic principles, I expressed myself then, and often since, sanguine of its ultimate success, though I thought prudence dictated its trial in a rough sea upon a larger but inexpensive scale. So satisfied, however, were its proprietors, Messrs. J. M. and T. D. Eason, of its adaptability to dredging, confirmed by my approval, that, without further trial, they built the dredging machine, now in use, at a heavy outlay, and, conquering all obstacles, are now reaping the reward of their perseverance and enterprise.

"The power of the machine is so great, that bricks, cannon balls, roots, bits of wreck, parts of piles, concreted sand and shells, and even a boat grapple of 30 pounds, have been readily pumped up from the depths of twelve feet. Several times 150 cubic yards have been excavated in less than half-an-hour, and deposited at Cumming's Point in forty minutes more."

7.—TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN AND EUROPE.

THE official returns of the Treasury Department show a very rapid augmentation of trade with Great Britain in the last fifteen years, but always with a large balance due the United States. The aggregates are as follows, at different periods:

	Exports.			Imports.		Excess of Exports.
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.			
1837..	\$49,665,206	\$4,897,314	\$54,562,570	\$41,886,193	\$12,696,377	
1842..	38,254,511	3,012,419	41,266,930	34,204,249	7,062,681	
1847..	86,266,935	1,028,421	87,275,357	67,598,628	19,696,729	
1851..	109,531,712	8,414,403	117,946,115	93,847,886	24,098,229	
1857..	182,656,472	3,196,312	185,846,784	131,103,093	54,743,691	

The balance due the United States by England is an annually increasing one. In other words, the purchases of American produce by Great Britain annually increase in a ratio faster than do the imports of goods into the United States from Great Britain. Much of the United States produce that reaches England goes thence, no doubt, to the continent and elsewhere, the warehouses of England serving as a sort of factor to the rest of the commercial world; and much of the goods imported into the United States from Great Britain come there in transit from the Continent. Nevertheless there is always a large cash balance due the United States from Great Britain. Gold enters largely into the exports to Great Britain, but it is always destined to meet the American bills running on Great Britain from other quarters of the world. If we take the business of 1857, and deduct the specie movements, we have results as follows:

Export to Great Britain	\$165,846,78
Less specie.....	50,890,28
Net exports.....	134,956,51
Imports from Great Britain.....	\$131,103,093
Less specie.....	4,069,854
Net imports.....	127,034,03
Excess imports of goods.....	\$7,922,47

These leave a balance of \$7,922,477 still due by Great Britain to the United States, in addition to those accounts earned by trading voyages between the West Indies and South America, and the Northern ports of Europe, the proceeds being generally placed with the London bankers. England is always largely the debtor of the United States. With France the change has been as follows in the last six years of active business:

	Exports.		Total		Excess
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Exports.	Imports.	Imports.
1851 ...	\$25,302,085	\$2,950,061	\$28,252,146	\$31,715,553	\$3,493,40
1857 ...	37,218,440	1,020,547	38,238,987	47,792,827	9,553,84

The balance increased in favor of France. If we deduct the specie movements the result is as follows for 1857:

Exports	\$38,238,98
Less specie	6,295,40
Net exports.....	31,943,57
Imports	\$47,792,827
Less specie.....	1,887,833
Net imports.....	45,904,93
Excess imports of goods.....	\$13,961,41

The net amount of \$9,553,000 was drawn from England in gold, mostly by the buying up by the Bank of France of the bills, and demanding gold for them at the London bank, an operation which has been practised for some years, and which has not a little puzzled the English financiers, since the apparently irregular action of the French bank in thus forcing a specie current would, it was supposed, inevitably react, but the movement being based upon the regular operation of trade between the United States, France and Great Britain, it was only determining the kind of payment which France would receive. With the North of Europe generally the balance has become far more in favor of the United States since the effect of gold has been to cause a larger demand for American produce in those countries, while the articles of goods that can be exported to the United States with profit are annually more circumscribed. We may compare the business of certain countries of the North of Europe in 1851 and 1857:

	1851.		1857.	
	U. States Exports.	Imports to U. States.	U. States Exports.	Imports to U. States.
Russia	\$1,611,691	\$1,392,782	\$4,528,301	\$1,435,394
Sweden	782,366	967,237	1,400,426	744,812
Hanse Towns.....	6,047,447	10,008,364	15,298,210	15,370,936
Holland	2,195,169	2,052,706	4,107,877	2,469,762
Belgium.....	2,852,012	2,377,630	5,644,326	5,060,311
Total	\$13,488,685	\$16,798,721	\$31,079,140	\$25,081,215

Thus from an excess of \$3,300,000 of imports from the North of Europe, the trade has turned, under the influence of the gold movement, to an excess of \$6,000,000 in the annual exports, showing the improved demand for American produce which exists in those countries of the North of Europe. Russia particularly promises to become a large customer both directly and indirectly for American produce, since the new Czar has practically recognized the wisdom of removing impediments to trade, and of emancipating not only labor but laborers from the "protection" which high duties and serfdom have oppressed them with.

The question of how international exchanges are to be kept up between nations that are rivals in the same production is a problem, which can resolve itself only on the principle on which the internal business of the same country is conducted, viz., by the utmost freedom and competition, which will elicit the fullest capacities of each and all, giving to that country the market whose natural facilities best adapt it to supply it.—*United States Economist*.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—ADVANCEMENT OF THE AGRICULTURAL INTERESTS OF THE SOUTH.

We are indebted to the Hon. A. M. Clayton, of Mississippi, for the following paper, which we insert with pleasure. It embodies his views presented to the Agricultural Bureau of that State.

The subject on which I propose to speak is one of vital importance at this time to Southern Planters—the production of cotton, and the supply of labor necessary to that production, in view of the increasing demand of the world.

The cotton plant is indigenous in most of the tropical countries of the earth. It has been cultivated almost as far back as the records of our earth reach. The Hindoos were clad in cotton garments more than three thousand years ago. Although it has thus been known from a very remote antiquity, and although it was grown during the middle ages, in Italy and Spain, and other Southern countries of Europe, its vast importance in the commerce of the world only begun to be felt about seventy years ago.

At that time its cultivation was first introduced into the United States. The child of the man is still living, Mrs. Gen. Gaines, the daughter of Gen. Clark, who brought the first seed into the South. The various inventions and improvements in machinery for its manufacture, about that period, gave a vast and rapid impetus to its cultivation. From a grain of mustard seed, as it were, it soon became a tree whose branches fill the heavens, and overshadow the remotest bounds of the earth. It has built up cities, sustained and upheld nations, and contributed more to the commerce, greatness and prosperity of the world, than any other one product. When cotton first became an article of export from the United States, Liverpool, the cotton emporium of the world, had about 100,000 tons of shipping; now its tonnage amounts to five millions. England at that time, shorn of her strength by the loss of her American colonies, seemed likely to become as Spain, from the same cause, a subordinate power. But by her manufacture of cotton, drawn from the same colonies converted

into independent States, she still stands in the front rank of the nations of the earth.

In this brief space, a mere point in the world's history, the cotton crop of the United States is, on an average, three millions of bales, worth one hundred and fifty millions of dollars. This constitutes about three fifths of the whole cotton crop of the world, and manufactured into goods, forms about one third of all the commercial exports of England. The entire value of cotton manufactured in England, including what is consumed there, is over two hundred millions of dollars annually, and the value of cotton goods manufactured throughout the world, is estimated at about five hundred millions, yearly.

Two millions of the people of Great Britain, or one fourteenth of its population, are interested in its manufacture. If to this be added those engaged in preparing machinery for their use, the number connected with it is not far from one tenth of its population. The value of machinery employed for both purposes, and thus directly or indirectly dependent upon cotton, is near three hundred millions of dollars. Cotton has thus become a positive power, with more of capital, and more of population dependent upon it, than any other production of the earth. English historians assert that it enabled England to subsidize and support the armies of Europe, which overthrew the empire of the first Napoleon. It is justly styled the "king of commerce," and it has more tributaries and subjects than any other monarch. The vast fabric of England's power rests upon it. Strike out its production but for a single year, and the evils that would follow are beyond computation. Factories idle and silent—ships dismantled—cities desolate—commerce stagnant—woe, want, and famine, stalking over the lands—these are some of the scenes which prophetically flit before the imagination.

Not only does your great staple—cotton—exercise this vast present influence upon the commerce and the affairs of the world, but the necessity and the demand for it are constantly on the increase. Cotton and civilization go together, and as the one extends its bounds, the demand for the other increases and grows. Within the present year, a vast addition has been made to the extent of country and the number of people to be supplied. India, with its two hundred millions of inhabitants, has been brought into more direct connection with the world. The great East India Company, with its magnificent monopolies, has fallen. India will hereafter be directly subject to the British crown. Increased commercial activity is anticipated from this revolution in its political condition. But though cotton has been grown in India for more than three thousand years, it does not, at this day, produce enough to supply its own wants. True, it exports a large amount of the raw material to England, but it is equally true that England sends back to India a greater weight of manufactured goods than it receives of the raw material from India. From this fact it is not improbable that American cotton contributes to clothe the East Indian; a fact which should go far to allay all present fear of rivalry in the production of cotton from that quarter.

Brazil, the only other slave power of the civilized world besides our own, with a slave population about equal to ours, is devoted to the culture of coffee, and requires a large amount of foreign cotton to meet its wants.

China, by recent treaties, after being shut out from commercial intercourse with the rest of the world, for uncounted ages, is open to the trade of England and the United States. A population of four hundred millions is thus added to the great family of nations, a population equal to one third of the sum total of the people of the world. China has always grown and manufactured cotton on a limited scale. The raw material has never equaled her own wants, and she derived a small supply from the East Indies. But India has ceased to furnish her. China has none of the modern improved machinery for its manufacture, hence she will buy the cotton goods rather than the raw material. Silks, teas and silver, of which two hundred and fifty millions of dollars have been exported to her from Europe, in the last six years, are the tempting articles which she has to offer in return for cotton. If she should consume as much per head as our people (thirty yards), it would require ten millions of bales—three times our present production—to supply her. But if her people should use only one third as much as ours, still our crop would have to be doubled to meet her wants. The demand for cotton seems, therefore, to be without limit, and each year sees its application to new uses, and develops new requirements.

It is not strange, therefore, that England is casting an anxious glance around the whole universe, to discover where the supply of cotton necessary to uphold her immense manufactures can be best obtained. Her capitalists have formed more than one "Cotton Supply Association," the object of which is to stimulate production by every means in their power. One reason assigned by the Associations for fear in regard to the supply of cotton, is the agitation of the slavery question in this country, and apprehension as to its security. However little this may accord with the sentiments of Exeter Hall, and of Lord Brougham and his followers, the practical men of England acknowledge, that but for the slave labor of this country, there would be an appalling deficiency of cotton. It is conceded that white labor cannot be relied on for its production, and they are discussing other modes of supply. The change of government in India is expected to contribute to this end, because the people there will be subjected to fewer exactions, and less oppressive extortion. But the love of ease, as in all tropical climates, will triumph over the love of gain; and if, in three thousand years, under every form of government, they have not yet learned to produce enough to fill their own moderate wants, it is not probable that the recent change of government will cause any appreciable effect in this particular, if the natives are left to their own inclinations.

Satisfied that voluntary labor will not suffice for the production of cotton, France openly, and England covertly, are resorting to the system of African apprenticeship. This is but another name for the slave trade, with all its attendant evils and none of its meliorating conditions. It has been tried by Spain in Cuba, more extensively than elsewhere. Coolies, Chinese, Yucatanese, have all been resorted to, but the result of the experiment does not speak much in its favor. They prefer the African slaves very greatly, and run all hazards to procure them, despite the fleets which are kept afloat, to suppress the trade. Between the apprentice and the master, no sympathy, with its humanizing influences, springs up. The object of the master is to exact as much labor as possible, in the stipulated period, without regard to the health or comfort of the apprentice. If he survives his term of service, a rare occurrence, without money and without friends, he cannot hope to get back to his native land. His only escape from destitution, is to enter upon another term of service, to be discarded when he is useless, without a master's protection. On the contrary, interest, humanity, and mutual sympathy, bind the master to treat his slave with kindness, and the slave reared in the family is often regarded almost as a child. The obligation of service and protection becomes mutual, and is discharged with mutual fidelity. While the apprentice system has proved a failure wherever it has been tried, slavery has made its subjects the most contented and best provided laborers on the globe. According to all past experience, slavery, or involuntary labor, is the only kind which has been successfully applied to the culture of cotton. The apprentice system forms no exception. When its unfitness shall be still further demonstrated, it will be seen whether these nations, now "straining at a gnat, but swallowing a camel," will return to the system of slavery, which they most unwisely rejected. Will that be their ultimate resort? The future only can decide. We need not fear their rivalry, unless they again supply their colonies with this species of labor. How then are we to supply the demand for cotton? Three millions of bales is now about our average crop. With continued peace, at least twice that amount will be required for the world. How can we procure the labor necessary to produce it?

Shall we resort to apprentices from Africa? I answer emphatically, no. Every reason and argument stand opposed to it. Besides and beyond all others, it would introduce an element of discord and interference with slavery, which would prevent all harmony. The one system or the other would have to be abandoned, and if we are now satisfied with slavery, it would be exceedingly unwise to bring in any disturbing influence. But this plan has scarcely an advocate.

Shall we then struggle to reopen the African slave trade? To this I am utterly opposed, as well on account of its impracticability, as its impolicy.

For years past, we of the South have been protesting against the useless agitation of the subject of slavery in Congress. It has served no purpose but to foment jealousies, generate dissensions, and embitter sectional feelings. To

attempt the repeal of the prohibition of the slave trade, would but rekindle the flames of discord, and open the floodgates of strife and commotion. The discussion would extend beyond the immediate question involved, and would rage with furious violence over the whole field of controversy. We know beforehand the result. With the present temper and the present power of the North, with the sentiment of the civilized world against it, and with a large minority, if not a positive majority of the South against it, there is no possibility of procuring their repeal. The first *prohibitory* law was passed by an almost unanimous vote—only five against it, three from the South, and two from the North—and we certainly have no evidence of a change in public opinion, which would justify the expectation of a reversal of this action. Three of the Southern States, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina, had anticipated the action of Congress in this respect, and had passed laws prohibiting the foreign slave trade before the acts of Congress were passed. I can hope for no partial good from the attempt to repeal; I think it is not difficult to foresee great and incomparable evils.

But if it were practicable, it is not politic. To say nothing further of the agitation growing out of it, of the public opinion of the world arrayed against it, it would throw a mass of unhomogeneous materials into the bosom of our present slave population, the effect of which would most certainly lead to disturbances and disaster. By the mixture of African barbarians, we should put to hazard all the progress and improvements which our slaves have made in the arts of civilization in the last century. If we look into the codes of our sister States, and see the severe and bloody enactments which were necessary to check the untamed and brutal violence of the imported Africans, and compare them with the present mild and humane laws, we could not desire to take a step backward. But suppose all these difficulties and obstacles to be surmounted, and the policy of importation to be adopted, what then? England, allured by our example, might, as she has heretofore done, again embark in the slave trade. It would be her interest to do so, and there is no more restraint upon her than upon us. If she were to introduce slavery into the fertile region of India, from being our best customer she might become a formidable rival in the production of cotton. Instead of enjoying a monopoly, we might be subjected to harassing competition.

But it is said, as mere abstractions these prohibitory laws, denouncing the African slave trade as piracy, ought not to be permitted to remain on the statute book. That they are gratuitous insults to the South, and cast doubt over the foundation of the title to slave property. These conclusions are by no means just or legitimate.

At the time the slave trade prevailed in Europe, it was not against any positive law, or against the law of nations. Every nation in Europe, who held colonies in the new world, from Denmark at the North, to Spain in the South participated in the trade. Their governments shared its profits, and recognize its validity and legality. Crowned heads and nobles, merchants and princes were partners in the traffic. The law of nations is made up of the practice and usage of nations, modified by treaty stipulations. It is idle to say, that the trade was against the law of nations, when there was no treaty against it, and when universal usage was in favor of it. And this is at last the conclusion of all enlightened tribunals, though some early decisions took a more contracted view of it. Slave acquired, when the trade itself was lawful with their descendants, are lawfully held in slavery. When the trade was prohibited, dealing in foreign slaves then became illegal, and the title would be invalid as to them. This distinction is very clearly recognized in our first treaty with England on the subject—the treaty of Ghent. In one of its articles, it stipulates indemnity or restoration to our citizens of slave taken away during the war; in another, both nations agree to unite in putting down the slave trade. England would never have consented to pay for slave which did not justly belong to our people. I can see, therefore, no arraignment of our title to our slaves in this legislation of our Congress.

The question still recurs, how is the necessary labor to be supplied? *answer, if at all, through the agency of cotton itself.* Even in the slave States the public sentiment was comparatively feeble in favor of slavery, until the increased profit, and enlarged cultivation of cotton, demonstrated the peculiar *talents* of the African race for its production. Before that time, there was

apologists for the institution, but few defenders or advocates. Since then, the foundations of slavery have been explored, and its claims to public regard canvassed in every possible form. It has been proven to be a great social and political blessing. It has been shown that it has existed in every age of the world, that it is sanctioned by divine as well as by human law; that it has greatly elevated the African in the scale of civilization, and that the American slave is far ahead of any of his race, in all that exalts our nature, and raises man above the mere brute. It is found to be justified by the strongest reason, and to rest upon an impregnable basis. This great revolution in opinion has been wrought out practically by cotton. From four hundred thousand, the number of slaves originally imported, they have grown to be four millions. From a small value, they have become worth two thousand millions of dollars. With the natural increase, and with the tendency to concentrate where their labor is most valuable, they will fill all our territory that is best adapted to their labor. The profits of tropical products will concentrate their numbers in the countries approaching the tropics, and attract them from the grain growing regions. The demand for cotton will force the support of those who now oppose the system, when they find it can be obtained in no other way. There will be a great and growing competition between New-England and Old-England, for the rich and vast trade of China. Cotton exports will form the chief element of that trade. They will be rivals in the purchase of it, and if we refuse to sell, except to those who respect our rights, and make no war upon our institutions, slavery will stand stronger and firmer than it has done since the first assault upon it. Ours is the only country, which has a surplus of cotton, and we hold the lever which moves or stops the great car of commerce. When it has attained the supremacy of control to which it is entitled, it will achieve its greatest triumph, by the protection it extends to the labor which grows it. It will be a capital in itself, which will be able to defend the institution which creates it. It will thus work out its own high destiny, and bind the world by a cord too strong to be broken. You may, then, concentrate slavery with safety, in the cotton growing regions of the South, for the necessities of the world, and its dependence upon its production will insure its security. With the monopoly of its growth you need have no fear of an over supply. Improve your modes of culture and your kinds of seeds—introduce the best agricultural implements and machinery; cultivate your richest soil; and you may approximate a supply equal to the wants of the world. In this way you will do more to promote the peace, and advance the civilization of the nations of the earth; to bind these States together, and to perpetuate their union, than any other class of human beings. You will add more to the material wealth of mankind, than the gold of California and Australia, though that amounts to a hundred millions a year. You will refute the stigma, that the earth grows pale under the footprints of slavery, and prove that the institution which contributes more to the wealth, the commerce, the prosperity, and the comfort of the inhabitants of the globe than any other; which diffuses its blessings wherever the sails of commerce whiten the shores of the ocean, cannot be otherwise than favored of Heaven.

2.—BI-SULPHATE OF LIME IN SUGAR.

The *Baton Rouge Gazette*, says the *New-Orleans Delta*, published in the midst of the Louisiana sugar region, and having every inducement to favor any measure for the benefit of the planters, asserts that the use of bi-sulphate of lime in sugar has a pernicious influence upon the health of those who consume that article. The *Gazette* says that old sugar planters, who have tried it, are daily furnishing evidence of the fact; and that, even of those who still use this article in sugars meant for sale, few or none use the sugar containing it on their own tables, or allow it to be used by their slaves. The paper says:—

"It is a notorious fact, that nearly every planter in this and the neighboring parish, will make this year as they did last, the sugar for their own use on the old plan, *without the poison* of bi-sulphate. We referred the other day to the fact, that the refuse from the kettles, after making sugar with this article, will kill hogs.

"*The hogs upon which the experiment was made had to be penned up,*

cribbed and confined, and it killed them all in short order. Left alone the turn up their noses at this poison, and will not touch it.

"In a Christian point of view, we should like to know how planters use an article to make their produce bring a half cent more in the pound, that the know full well is injurious to the animal economy? We dare say that the great mortality this season among children can be traced directly to the syrup or molasses of the bi-sulphate."

Per contra, the *New-Orleans Delta* says:—

"Bi-Sulphate is utterly innocuous, and that whether it is or not, the planters and sugar-makers so regard it, and use it in their families constantly. We are not sufficiently acquainted with its chemical composition to give an authoritative opinion upon the subject, but from all we can learn, the bi-sulphate is used simply as a defecator or cleanser, by which the foreign substances in the cane juice are brought to the surface, and thus the sugar is made whiter and the crystallization promoted. Neither sulphur nor lime, the components of this solution, are poisonous substances."

3.—IMPROVED COTTON.

Mr. D. Dickson, of Oxford, Ga., has succeeded in producing upon one stalk a cotton of a kind which he calls "Dickson's Select Cotton," only five feet high 469 bolls. He gives the following directions for its cultivation:

"The land should be broken fine and deep before planting, and if planted on high land, it should be planted on beds, the land should be kept as level in the cultivation between the rows as possible, to prevent the cotton from shedding in case of drought.

"If planted on land inclined to be wet, or on bottom-land, it should be planted on beds as high as possible, and the middle furrow should be kept open to drain off the surplus water, so that the beds may have warmth and dryness, so essential to the cotton plant. In a short climate for cotton it should be planted on beds as high as potato ridges, and kept so in the cultivation by keeping the middle furrow well open, which will increase the warmth of the land fully one degree, causing it to mature earlier.—The land should be plowed as shallow as possible, with sweeps set very skimming to prevent the cotton from making too much weed, and shedding its first fruit, which should be secured if possible.

"In all light, loose and sandy soils, cotton should be cultivated with sweep very skimming, or light harrows, stirring the ground as shallow as possible, but frequently, as the breaking of the young roots or feeders is almost certain to cause the cotton to shed a portion of its first fruit, which ought to be secured to mature a good crop before early frost. Stiff lands should be plowed once only after planting, and then cultivated as above directed. This variety of cotton must be topped.

"On thin and unmanured upland, it should be topped by the 20th July, manure upland the 1st of August, and rich bottom about the 10th of August, as too early topping of bottom land will cause it to sucker too much. If strong land, it put out side-branches at the ground, which ought to be topped also. This cotton should be left one fourth thicker in the drill than other cotton, and the rows a little closer."

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—MONTGOMERY, ALABAMA.

PROFESSOR GEORGE STEUCKRATH thus continues his notes for the Review:

The first portion of Montgomery, east of the Range Line, was laid out about 1817, by Andrew Dexter, Esq., and about the same time, west of the Range Line, by the Alabama Company, 12 or 13 years afterward; and still farther west of the Range Line, by Edward Harpick, Esq., and Henry Goldthwaite Esq., the latter subsequently Judge of the Supreme Court of Alabama. Other portions of the city were laid out by George Whitman, Esq., General John Scott, P. H. Clayton, Esq., and others.

The present population of the city is between 9,000 and 10,000 inhabitants. The valuation of the real estate is now about five millions of dollars. Number of bales of cotton shipped from this city this season, is, up to this date, over 80,000.

and the receipts will probably reach, by the close of the season, 100,000 bales. The capitol is located on elevated ground, in the eastern part of the city, on Capitol-Hill, and was laid out, and left for that purpose, by the proprietor, Andrew Dexter, Esq., above-named. This edifice is of brick, and stuccoed. The view from the upper part of the building is very extensive over the surrounding country.

There are many handsome private residences, built of brick, and several of them very expensive and magnificent.

It contains one Protestant Episcopal, one Presbyterian, one Methodist Episcopal, one Methodist Protestant, one Roman Catholic, and one Baptist Church, and filled with able and faithful ministers, and also one Jewish Synagogue Room.

This is the residence of the Bishop of the Diocese of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

There is a goodly number of private and public schools for the education of youth, under the superintendence of accomplished and intelligent instructors.

The only chartered banks in the city, are the Central Bank of Alabama, and the Bank of Montgomery, both of well-established reputation throughout the country. The Montgomery Insurance Company, the Southern Insurance Company, are chartered institutions, doing banking business on sound principles.

There are several private banking-houses, as: Henley & Co., Jesiah Morris, and S. Ciolom & Co., with large capitals, and doing an extensive business, on strict and honest principles, following my own motto of experience:

"Honesty is the best policy!"

"The future uncovers the hidden depth of the past."

In this city are three first class hotels: the Exchange Hotel, Montgomery Hall, and Madison House. It is my pleasure, however, to spend my time always at the first, whose proprietors, Messrs. Watt, Lanier & Co., are gentlemen well known throughout the United States, for comfortable accommodations and good fare.

In this capital there are three newspaper establishments, *The Montgomery Advertiser*, *The Confederation*, and *The Montgomery Mail*, whose editors are scholars, and obliging gentlemen.

About eight months of the year, navigation for large steamboats is good on the Alabama River, on which the city is situated, and the balance of the year navigation is sufficient for small boats.

The capital is also connected by the Montgomery and Westpoint Railroad with Westpoint, and by a branch from Opelika with Columbus, Geo. The Alabama and Florida Railroad will connect Montgomery with Pensacola, and is finished from the capital to a point distant 36 miles, near Greenville, Butler co. The balance of the road is nearly all graded, and will probably be completed to Pensacola in the year 1860.

The inhabitants of this metropolis, as well as of the whole state, are, as far as I have had opportunity to judge, citizens of liberal, hospitable, intelligent and obliging character; and I deeply regret the briefness of my visit. The merchants here seem to do a brisk business, and are noted for their energy, devotedness and perseverance in their business transactions.

2.—MOBILE, ALABAMA.

HAVING left Montgomery on Friday afternoon, in that splendid steamer *St. Nicholas*, under the command of Captain Jesse G. Cox, I was greatly gratified to find her one of the most comfortable and convenient boats upon which I have ever been. The captain and his officers are distinguished for their courteous attentions to their passengers, and all the arrangements of the boat are of the most elegant order. The cabin is 175 feet in length and 16 feet wide, and the state-rooms fitted up in the best style. It is almost like being in a drawing-room to glide along in these floating palaces, compared to the rough and disagreeable manner of travelling in former times.

The Alabama River is distinguished by many associations of an historical character. We passed along by the old Indian Ground, which lies in Lowndes county; then we saw the scene of the Canoe Fight, and afterward passed near

MISSISSIPPI, AND HER EARLY HISTORY.

it so celebrated for the sanguinary massacres of Fort Mimms, all of which are described in that beautiful and intelligent work of Judge A. B. Meek, published last year, entitled, *Romantic Passages in Southwestern History*. The city of Mobile is very interesting in an historical point of view. You are aware that it was the first seat of Colonel Patton in the Southwest. Bienville and his companions were here some ten years before New-Orleans was established.

The first settlement at this point was in 1711. New-Orleans was not founded until 1721. Nearly all vestiges of the old French inhabitants have passed but we observe memorials of them in the names of the streets of the city, such as Dauphin, Royal, Conti, St. Michael, &c., &c.

The population of Mobile is about 30,000. Business prospects are very bright in Mobile at this time. The inhabitants seem to have lost all recollection of the yellow fever of last summer, and are rushing in commercial and industrial speculations with the greatest avidity.

The city has been of late much excited by the filibuster movements toward Cuba. General William Walker has made it his headquarters, and is still surrounded by thousands of hearts here are throbbing with anxiety for his success, as it is believed that the establishment of Anglo-Saxon rule in Nicaragua will add to the commercial prosperity of the South and the extension and safety of our institutions.

The receipts of cotton since the 1st of September, exceed 300,000 bales, and the exports of sugar 600,000 bales for the season.

Mobile may well be proud of her literary institutions. She is doing more than any other city in the South for common school education. The Baton Rouge Academy furnishes 1,000 pupils annually with the elements of knowledge, free of charge.

The Mobile and Ohio Railroad is in a very prosperous condition. This great enterprise, which is to connect the waters of the Gulf with those of the Ohio, is now completed, with the exception of a brief section in Northern Mississippi and Alabama, which will cost for its completion only \$700,000. This sum, it is generally believed, will soon be raised upon the bonds of the company.

Mobile is justly proud of their famous Battle House. It is unquestionably one of the best hotels in the South. The proprietors, Messrs. Chamberlain and Darling, are the very models of landlords, keeping constantly in view the convenience and welfare of their guests. The table is provided with all the delicacies and luxuries that can be found in any of the first-class establishments in the country.

I could talk to you for hours on the other interesting characteristics of Mobile, but my sketch is already sufficiently extended.

8.—MISSISSIPPI, AND HER EARLY HISTORY.

We are rejoiced to perceive that the Historical Society of Mississippi, recently organized, are in earnest in their labors, and we incorporate with pleasure the circulars they have sent us. A similar society in Louisiana has been absorbed by the Mississippi Valley Association of Sciences as one of its chapters. Our Review has published many of their results, and will still continue to do so, and extend its pages also to kindred societies at the South:

Mississippians, we have, apart from our common heritage in the great Republic, a history of our own, replete with interest and instruction, and among the heroes of our State were men whose names and characters may each be adorned with patriotic pride. Nor can we accept the alternative, that those who are now reaping where they once sowed, those who are the favored occupants of the fair land which they explored and settled when it was yet a wilderness, a thankless race, or forgetful of those to whom they owe their goodly inheritance.

It is not in Mississippi that State feeling and State pride are wanting. It is only that men who have served us well are forgotten because they are dead. The hearts of our people are true, and their memories faithful; and we are assured they only need to be reminded that what is engraven in the memories of the present generation, should have also a permanent record.

for generations yet unborn. There may have been neglect, but not indifference ; and now that the opportunity is afforded them of discharging this sacred duty, the earnest appeal that the materials which elucidate our early history may not be suffered to perish, but be gathered and gained with filial care, will not be in vain. Let us, fellow-citizens, preserve from oblivion, now while we may, the names and deeds of the hardy pioneers who laid the foundation of our noble State, and of all those who by their wisdom and their valor have since contributed to its welfare and renown. Already much has been lost. The first settlers are all gone, and their immediate descendants are rapidly passing away. Unless they are now secured, the authentic history of our State will soon be beyond our reach. The mementoes of the Indian occupants of our soil are scattered over the whole State with none to gather them. The extinct Natchez tribe has come to be regarded as almost a myth. The notices of European expeditions, commencing with De Soto's in 1542, and of European settlements, commencing with La Salle in 1681, are very obscure. The influence of the French and Spanish *regimes* upon our early history is almost unknown, and the very annals of our territorial government are in danger of being lost. And is it not then time, high time, that this work should be entered upon and prosecuted with the utmost vigor ! Should not all who can, lend us their aid in the collecting of interesting facts derived from original and authentic sources—thus contributing to our history what else will remain unwritten ! And while we offer a safe depository for whatever relates to the olden men and the olden times, as well as to contemporaneous history, may we not hope that a spirit of research will be awakened throughout our borders, which will leave as little as possible of our origin and progress to future conjecture ! States much younger than our own, and far inferior to ours in historic interest, have already made great advancement in this work. Wisconsin in particular, though, as a State, thirty-one years younger than Mississippi, has set us an example of enlightened and patriotic interest well worthy of our imitation. Her Legislature has had the wisdom and liberality to make an annual appropriation to her Historical Society, through which great and lasting benefits have already been secured. In three years the Society has collected a valuable historical library of 3,000 volumes, exclusive of a greater number of pamphlets, with many unbound documents and files of newspapers and periodicals—to say nothing of its cabinet, and the gallery of portraits of its pioneers and early public men. It also publishes annually, a large volume of valuable reports and collections. We invoke our fellow-citizens to aid us in doing likewise. We cordially invite them to become members of the Society, by the annual payment of one dollar, or life-members, by the single payment of twenty dollars. We ask for contributions and endowments ; indeed, for whatever may facilitate the purposes of our organization, and perpetuate the honorable memories of the past.

The particular objects of collection desired by the Society are as follows :

1. Manuscript statements and narratives of pioneer settlers—old letters and journals relative to the early history and settlement of Mississippi ; biographical notices of eminent citizens, deceased, and facts illustrative of our Indian tribes, their history, characteristics, sketches of their prominent chiefs, orators and warriors, together with contributions of Indian implements, dress, ornaments and curiosities.
2. Files of newspapers, books, pamphlets, college catalogues, minutes of ecclesiastical conventions, conferences and synods, and other publications relating to this State, and to the territory of which it once formed a part.
3. Drawings and descriptions of our ancient mounds and fortifications, their size, representation and locality, together with information respecting any ancient coins, or other curiosities found in Mississippi.
4. Indian geographical names of streams and localities in this State, with their signification.
5. Books of all kinds, and especially such as relate to American history, travels and biography in general, and the Southwest in particular, family genealogies, old magazines, pamphlets, maps, historical manuscripts, autographs of distinguished names, coins, medals, paintings, portraits, statuary and engravings.
6. We solicit from historical societies and other learned bodies, that interchange of books and other materials, by which the usefulness of institutions of this nature is so essentially enhanced.

7. The Society particularly begs the favor and compliment of authors and publishers, to present, with their autographs, copies of their respective works for its library.

8. Editors and publishers of newspapers, magazines, and reviews, will confer a lasting favor on the society, by contributing their publications regularly for its library—or, at least, such numbers as may contain articles bearing upon Mississippi history, biography, geography, or antiquities; all which will be carefully reserved for binding.

WM. CRUSE CRANE,
J. H. MILLIKEN,
THOMAS J. WHARTON.

Jackson, Nov. 26, 1858.

N. B.—Subscriptions and donations of money should be forwarded to Wirt Adams, Esq., Treasurer, Jackson.

Any articles designed for the Society, may be sent directly to the Corresponding Secretary and Librarian, B. W. Saunders, Esq., Jackson, or they may be deposited with the officers of the Society, or with either of the following named gentlemen:

Giles M. Hillyer, Natchez; James Roach, Esq., Vicksburgh; Hon. J. F. H. Claiborne, Bay St. Louis; Hon. Beverly Matthews, Columbus; Rev. J. H. Ingraham, Holly Springs; Col. J. H. Horne, Wayne county.

4.—STATISTICS OF ARKANSAS.

THE aggregate population of the fifty-three counties, on the first day of January, 1858, was 325,429, of which 131,197 were free white males; 113,113 free white females; 80,385 slaves, and 734 free persons of color. The lands cultivated in the year 1857 were 317,680 acres in cotton, and the production 172,693 bales; 970,354 acres in grain, and the production 16,880,952 bushels of corn, 139,096 bushels of wheat, and 2,035,730 bushels of oats. By the auditor's report, it appears that there were in the State of Arkansas, for the year 1858, besides other property, 60,249 slaves, 360 saw-mills, 104 tan-yards, 56 distilleries, 2,212 pleasure carriages, 61,198 horses, 23,103 mules, 1,001 jacks and jennies, 191,692 neat cattle, \$1,841,802 in goods, wares and merchandise, \$1,086,055 money loaned at interest, \$49,669 invested in steamboats, \$220,177 in gold watches and jewelry, \$60,044 invested in manufactories; and that the total value of the property taxed in the State, for the year 1858, is \$99,872,248.

The increase of the taxable property of this State, for the four years, from 1852 to 1856, was \$27,857,965; and during the last two years, the increase of the taxable property of the State has been \$29,115,203—demonstrating that the taxable property of the State has increased during the last six years, \$57,973,168; and that more than half of that increase was during the last two years. The whole value of property taxed in the State, for the year 1852, was \$42,900,000; being \$14,073,088, less than half of what it amounts to for the year 1858.

5.—GREAT FIRES IN THE UNITED STATES—1857-'58.

The following statement shows the number of fires occurring during each month of the past year, with the loss resulting:

	No. of Fires.	Loss, 1858.	Iditto, 1857.
January.....	36	\$1,892,000	\$1,000,000
February.....	30	1,223,000	2,030,000
March.....	30	856,000	1,788,000
April.....	19	795,000	1,720,000
May.....	17	1,109,000	869,000
June.....	16	825,000	958,000
July.....	27	832,000	1,602,000
August.....	21	778,000	661,000
September.....	17	785,000	1,025,000
October.....	19	1,926,000	1,820,000
November.....	16	557,000	1,110,000
December.....	12	481,000	549,000
	281	12,054,000	14,502,000

the above list all losses less than \$10,000 are omitted.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

We are indebted to L. W. Spratt, of South Carolina, for a copy of his very able remarks made in the Legislature of South Carolina upon the re-opening of the slave trade, and although we cannot publish fully, shall at an early day extract liberally from them. Mr. Spratt was almost the first to open the discussion of this very important subject to the South, and he has pursued it ever since with an ability and zeal seldom if ever surpassed. It must be a source of gratification to him to find how wide and general has been the interest excited.

R. Thomassy, Hydraulic Engineer, who has removed to Louisiana, sends us a paper upon our Levee System as interpreted by that of Holland, and we will publish it hereafter. This subject of hydraulic engineering should be regarded as of first importance in Louisiana.

The following works were received from the house of D. Appleton & Co., New-York, and will be noticed fully in our next:

The Ministry of Life,
Bertram Noel,
Cornell's School Grammar.

Will publishers take notice, that books intended for the Review should be sent through New-Orleans booksellers.

The next Southern Convention is to be held at Vicksburgh, Miss., in May, 1853, and the press of that State have already taken the subject in hand, as will be seen by the following extract:

"As there will be a large number of visitors to our city at that time, and many distinguished gentlemen, we submit that it would not be too early for our city authorities and citizens to take some steps toward accommodating the body, as well as the members likely to be present."

We are indebted to the publishers, J. H. Colton & Co., of New-York, for a copy of their *General Atlas of the World*, in two large volumes. It contains 170 maps and plans, and 161 letter-press

pages. The work has been reduced to the low price of \$16, and the publishers have also issued a Cabinet Atlas, which is intermediate between the General and the School Atlas. It is embraced in one volume, royal quarto, with 113 steel plate maps and 600 wood cuts.

"An atlas, embracing all the new features of modern geography, and divested of the errors of past ages, has for many years been wanting to complete the library of American geographical literature. None of the older works of a like character, however praiseworthy they may have been in their day and generation, and however altered to adapt them to present circumstances, have been able to exhibit a moiety of the collected knowledge of the present time. It is only by entirely new drawings and descriptions that the subject could be faithfully portrayed."

The editor of the Southern Intelligencer, published at Austin, Texas, has written a reply to the able article of Mr. Delony, which we recently published, in advocacy of the slave trade, and has desired its appearance in the Review. We have not the space for that purpose at present, but incorporate willingly one portion of his remarks:

"Mr. Delony's calculation is, that in 1860 the cotton crop of the world will fall short of the demand 1,300,000 bales, requiring 350,000 additional negro laborers. To supply these, Delony would reopen the African slave trade, while De Cordova would import European laborers into Texas. The gentlemen, however, differ widely as to the uncultivated lands in the other cotton States. De Cordova thinks there are none; Delony can employ 100,000 additional African laborers in Louisiana, and leave the forests still unblazed. He does not propose less than 100,000 new Africans in each of the eight cotton States; and yet he admits that the 100,000, at the African importers' prices, \$30 each, would cost thirty millions of dollars, requiring two hundred and forty millions of dollars for the eight cotton States, employing 1,300 vessels of 30 tons each, making two regular trips a year. It would take two full crops of 3,500,000 bales of cotton, at fifty dollars per bale, to pay for the 80,000 negroes. And as there would more than double all the negroes ever imported into the United States, what would be the result a century hence? De Cordova's notions of importing white laborers are still more absurd.

"Mr. Delony is alarmed at the small numbers of slave-owners proper. Like the writer in the North British Review, he finds the whole number of slave-owners, in 1850, were

47,925; of this number, 68,820 held but one slave each; and 105,083 held under five slaves each; showing that 170,963 slave-owners held at 335,899 slaves, while 175,022 held the balance—2,818,444. To *displace* the ownership more generally, he would reduce the price by decreasing the quantity, by foreign imports; and he would exempt at least *one* from debt to very family. But the writer himself shows a solid importation to be impossible. And should he exempt every negro in the land, few men would be so dishonest as to own them then pressed down by debt. The home-bred exemption in Texas proves this.

"But suppose the capital of the world should be employed to bring negroes from Africa until prices should average \$250 instead of 500, as is now the case? The prices would then be higher than they were twenty-five years ago; and yet the desire to own them *now* much greater than when they were *cheap*—upon the principle that purchasers are much more abundant when an article is high, than low—that gold is less valuable—slight moment greater, and, consequently, mental laborers scarcer.

"Another result would be, that the selling value of the 6,000,000 would be no greater than at present 3,000,000, consequently the labor could be worth no more with double the output to feed. The South would thus only continue to enrich the North and West in a compound ratio, and to impoverish their own section. As we increased our demand for provisions, they would increase their supply of white laborers. Their immigrant would bring along an importation of capital, with themselves equal to the negroes. Every importation would add whatever of fortune a European brings from the old world; and every five would count five in the Federal list, while our five would cost 31,500, and count but three. The disparity of the representation in the sections would thus increase. Whereas, if for want of slave labor there would really be a deficiency in cotton and sugar, as there certainly will be in stock, then men of the North and West will transfer their capital to the South, buy lands and negroes at high figures, and work them too.

"We are aware that argument of this kind is liable to misconstruction, and that it is dangerous to say that every white laborer is an *not* a negro. Our intense Southern men really believe that the only salvation of the South is the exhausting all our capital in importing negroes, in order to increase our own population, and supply the world's market; and that by all means, we should discourage foreign immigration. In their arguments for the present they lose sight of the stand of the great future. Nearly all agree at the profits of the planters are smaller than any other investment of capital; and at which the staples are low, he gets in debt every year. They cannot surround themselves with comforts, and luxuries, and the advantages of education, like other men. They consequently thoughtlessly go North for amusements, to educate their children, for their supplies and their literature. They thus build up the wealth and importance of her sections. They give too little mental employment to their own sons. And yet they complain of the constant stealing away of power and wealth. The remedy is not in the *ending* of the African slave trade, however *cheap* may be done by expanding our Union *inward*. We must invest more capital in *and* improvements, manufactories, publishing houses, colleges, schools, the arts, mat-

ters of taste, and the embellishments and endearments of home. We must teach Southern agriculture as a science, and give additional value to our labor. By rendering living easy we add to the ratio of increase. In this way we may establish a Southern independence, which will check the reckless minds who know not the value of our productions.

While the election of Mr. Chesnut to the U. S. Senate in South Carolina, and the speeches of Mr. Hammond, have been regarded as an evident letting down of that State from the positions previously occupied by her, the *Inaugural Speech of Governor Gist* still smacks of the old nullification days. He says:

"It is to be hoped that no occasion will arise requiring the State to call upon her sons for the defense of her rights and her institutions—that our enemies at the North will learn wisdom from the past, and permit us to quietly manage our own affairs in our own way—that our friends at the North, by the power of argument and the force of truth, will be able (if not to convince the deluded fanatic) to satisfy the minds of the intelligent and patriotic of the justice of our cause and the honesty of our ends, and thus avert the dangers with which we are threatened. Last, however, these hopes should prove fallacious—and I believe they will—let us endeavor to harmonize among ourselves by tolerating differences of opinion where no question of principle is involved—encouraging those in the war to quicken their pace, by pointing out to them the dangers that threaten us, and urging them to come to the rescue. And if some of our people, with bosoms overflowing with patriotic zeal and love of country, and indignant at the wrongs inflicted without provocation on their own sunny land, should venture beyond the bounds of a cold, calculating policy, we should pardon something to the spirit of liberty."

"We should not only endeavor to unite the State, but the entire South, so that when we can no longer retain our places as equals in the confederacy, we will be prepared to form a more perfect union, under the style and title of the United States South."

Thanks to the author, Dr. Robert W. Gibbs, Jr., for a copy of the report relating to *Births, Marriages, and Deaths in South Carolina*, for 1857, which will be noticed fully hereafter. Dr. Meigs, of Philadelphia, will also receive thanks for a pamphlet, entitled "*Hints to Craniographers*."

The death of two of our most distinguished contributors and warm personal friends casts a dark shadow in our way. Col. James Gadsden, recent minister to Mexico, and long an eminent citizen of South Carolina, has descended the narrow portals of the grave. In 1846 he visited with us the Western country as delegate from Charleston to the Memphis Convention. We remember his large and liberal views, and his control-

ling influence in that body. Few men have better served their country than James Gaiden. Peace to his ashes! The Hon. H. Bry, of Onachita, is also gone. At the ripe age of 78 he has been called from among us. Louisiana may well mourn one of her most honored sons. He filled many high positions, and filled them well. Says a notice before us:

"Even his recreations and exercise were conducive to general improvement: these were mostly in his garden and green-houses. His knowledge of botany and horticulture, with his industry in collecting plants and trees most likely to thrive in that climate and soil, have served to beautify the residences and render fruitful the orchards of his fellow-citizens around Monroe, by diffusing a similar taste and affording the opportunity to indulge it."

"He attracted to that distant and then almost unknown region, men of intelligence and worth, by the accurate and ample descriptions he gave of its advantages, through the leading journals of the country."

"During the last quarter of a century he has had the patriotic satisfaction of seeing a dozen of thriving parishes and communities grow up in Northern Louisiana, carved out of the wilderness he settled, extending from the Mississippi to the limit of Texas, and knowing that he greatly contributed to this result."

A correspondent in Maryland proposes to us an enterprise, which we submit for the attention of the capitalists of the South and of the country, and shall be glad to correspond with any one who may desire it, and to take part in any organization which may prove to be practicable. The property referred to is held under an act of incorporation of the States of Maryland and Virginia, and is admirably situated, in juxtaposition to the Baltimore and Ohio railroad and Chesapeake canal. There is a river front of 2,000 feet. On the property there is, says our correspondent, "as great a water-power as that at Lowell, and, in every respect, it is better situated, especially to command the Southern market. This power has been rendered available by the construction of a permanent dam and capacious race-way. On the construction of these works, a large flouring mill and other improvements, a larger sum has been expended than is asked for the whole property, as not more than a fifth of its value, in view of the application of a small additional capital, is now asked for it."

"Forty-two thousand dollars will be taken for the whole real estate, payable one fifth cash, one fifth first next March, and the remaining three fifths in four, eight, and twelve months after the said

first of March. The payments to carry interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum. It is, in truth, an immense speculation."

"I am very desirous to join in the purchase to the extent of one fifth."

Edward N. Dickerson, civil engineer, who surveyed the property several years ago, and reported upon it, among other things said:

"In surveying all the great and decided natural and artificial advantages of Weverton, I felt astonished at the supineness and neglect which have permitted them, so long, to remain unimproved. The elements of millions of wealth are there, and no effort is made to draw one dollar from the human store. Lowell, with but a few of the advantages, and they in an inferior degree, has advanced from a common farm to a flourishing city in twenty years, and now is only checked by the exhaustion of its water-power. Paterson, and Trenton, and Fall River, and numerous other places, which are mere pigmies compared with your giant power, and with, perhaps, but a fifth of your very superior advantages, have all excelled you in the pursuit of wealth and in the great benefits which they have conferred upon their respective communities; and even steam, with its train of danger, expense, and trouble, is earning money in places where there is no water-power, and, indeed, where there are but few of the other advantages you possess. Many insignificant rivulets, in the Eastern States, are impeded into service, and the revolutions of their diminutive wheels is a reproach to you."

The State of Mississippi is acting in the most praiseworthy manner in the promotion of her *Agricultural Bureau*, and if the other States of the South would act in the same spirit, we should soon have an end of the national farce, enacted at Washington City, under the guise of "Agricultural Report and Seed Distribution," and the barefaced impudence of a recent Convocation, at the expense of the Government, in that place, would not have been tolerated. The parties in this movement, under the lead of one D. J. Brown, a clerk in the Patent Office, without an idea of practical agriculture, were mainly employees of the Government and hangers-on at the national capital, as ignorant of agricultural science as the clerk himself. We agree altogether with the "*States*" and the "*Delta*," in their expressions of surprise that such men as the Hon. Jacob Thompson and Mr. Holt would countenance or permit this charlatanism. Our purpose, however, is with the Agricultural Bureau of Mississippi. A directory of five gentlemen has been appointed, and the Legislature has appropriated \$2,000 for the improvement of the Fair grounds, and \$1,500 per

annum forever to be expended in premiums and seeds.

We are indebted to the author, Dr. Barton, for a copy of the third edition of his work on the *Cause and Prevention of Yellow Fever*, and have in course of preparation an article in review of some of its interesting facts and statistics, which must be delayed until next month.

In the advertising department of the Review will be found the card of Messrs. Jenks & Son, of Bridesburg. In regard to their Cotton Gins a friend writes us:

"The many improvements and inventions they have made in the machinery built by them, have deservedly placed the name of this firm in the first rank of American manufacturers, and attained for them a reputation second to none in this country. Our object in this article is more particularly to invite the attention of Southern cotton-planters to the description of the Improved Cotton Gin built by this firm. Without fully endorsing the representations made of the great merit of this invention, we are confident that (if they are well founded in truth) it will effect a complete revolution in the cotton-growing regions of the South, and prove of incalculable advantage to the planter. Among others, one of the peculiar merits claimed for this gin, consists in the fact that it matters not how trashy the cotton may be gathered, nor what quantity of sticks, stems, 'blasted bolls,' &c., is placed in the breast of the gin, as the cylinder rejects all extraneous matter, and receives nothing but the lint. This fact alone especially commends the gin to the attention of the planter, as more cotton is grown than can be gathered by the number of hands; and the production by the use of this gin, over any other now in use (as is confidently asserted by the Messrs. Jenks), will be increased fully one third, from the fact that the cotton need not be picked with so much care as that intended for the saw gin, enabling the same number of hands to pick at least one third more, by picking it trashy. The value of the cotton is also enhanced from 1 to 1½ cents per pound, the gin not napping it in the least, and preserving a more uniform length of staple than the saw gin. It is almost superfluous to attempt to point out to a Southern cotton-planter the immense superiority and value of such a gin over any other extant. The Messrs. Jenks have a gin running at Vickburg, Miss.; and, from their well-known reputation and ability, we are satisfied that it will be to the interest of cotton-planters to investigate its merits."

The following numbers of the Review remain very scarce, and will be purchased at subscription price at the New-Orleans office. They may be sent by mail:

1846: January, February, March, April, May, July, September.
1847: January, March, May, and June.
1849: August.

1850: September.

1851: February and June.

1856: January.

1858: January.

☞ We have a few sets of the New Series of the Review, handsomely bound in ten volumes, for which the price will be \$35, delivered in any of the Southern cities or towns.

☞ Subscribers would do well to complete their sets or volumes.

It would give us pleasure, and increase the usefulness of the Review, if we could furnish in it a monthly record of Southern plantations offered for sale or exchange, and our charges would be moderate, viz.: For one insertion of ten lines, \$2, and for a greater space in proportion; for three insertions, \$5. As the Review circulates extensively in all the Southern and Middle States, this might be an important medium of communication with purchasers.

The following estate, beautifully situated upon the Potomac, is offered for sale by the Editor of the Review. It furnishes one of the best "gentleman's country-seats." It contains 160 acres of land for wheat, grass, or gardening, and is situated in the county of Alexandria, Va., three miles from the city of Washington, and about the same distance from the city of Alexandria, possessing a large and commodious shipping port. The Washington and Alexandria turnpike, a railroad and canal, pass through the premises, and afford the easiest communication with the two cities, and all other parts of the Union. The dwelling-house is a new frame house, containing twelve commodious rooms and a kitchen. The out-buildings are all new and frame, and consist of two store-rooms and a summer kitchen, with a large cellar under them—a barn, a stable, carriage-house, ice house, &c. There are on the premises several excellent springs, and near the house a brass pump. The tract bordering on the Potomac river, has a fine fishing shore, and a splendid view of the river, with the purest air—12 acres of it are under cultivation, and the rest is woodland—oak, walnut, and hickory. The place has also a strong water-power sufficient for a large mill or factory. Terms: one third of the consideration cash down—the balance to be paid in such instalments as may suit the convenience of the purchaser—to be secured on the premises.

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY, 1846.

MARCH, 1859.

VOL. XXVI., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 3, N. S.

ART. I.—RECLAMATION OF THE RIVER WILDS OF THE SOUTHWEST.

COLONEL JAMES L. ALCORN has published lately a pamphlet, addressed to Governor McWillie, of Mississippi, on the subject of Levee Legislation. The isolation of the existing swamp-land interests of that State presenting itself to him as an evil, it is recommended by him that immediate steps be taken for the reclamation of the fluvial wastes in the interior of Mississippi. The suggestion is highly important. Coming up as an incident to the subject which his pamphlet considers, Col. Alcorn, however, has made the proposition briefly. This paper contemplates, therefore, the few additional touches necessary to complete his rapid sketch, and proposes to itself the unpretending office of following the pencilings of the worthy gentleman as a mere filler-in of detail.

The pamphlet leads to the suggestion in question with the method of a lawyer and the skill of a statist. Its approaches open thus: "A printed report of the Auditor shows facts very suggestive of a movement among our slave population; and suggestive further of some very powerful cause for such a movement. The following table has been compiled from the official documents, 'showing the assessment of the lands and negroes in each county of the State of Mississippi, for the years 1854 and 1857, exhibiting the increase in value of the lands and number of slaves in each county':"

Slave Statistics of Mississippi for 1854 and 1857.

Counties.	Comparison of slave population in 1857 with that in 1854, as shown by the actual returns.	Addition that should have taken place, from 1854 to 1857, at the rate of natural increase.	Falling off upon the three years from the natural increase.	Remarks.
Adams	Decrease, 419	Increase, 1,204	Falling off 1,623	
Albany	Increase, 390	" 568	" 172	Adjoining N. O & Gt. North. R. R.
Albany	Decrease, 82	" 968	" 1,050	
Alcorn	Decrease, 1	" 52	" 53	Adjoining Mobile and Ohio R. R.
Alcorn	Decrease, 253	" 411	" 364	
Alcorn	Increase, 28	" 81	" 53	
Alcorn	Increase, 1,458	" 1,408	" 40	Traversed by the Southern and the Great Northern R. R.
Alcorn	Increase, 32	" 70	" 38	
Alcorn	Increase, 456	" 907	" 451	
Alcorn	Increase, 857	" 1,316	" 459	Traversed by the Gt. Northern and the Central R. R.
Alcorn	Decrease, 48	" 173	" 223	
Alcorn	Increase, 1,050	" 1,341	" 194	Traversed by the Central R. R.
Alcorn	Increase, 423	" 1,000	" 580	Traversed by the Mob. & O. R. R.
Alcorn	Decrease, 39	" 62	" 101	
Alcorn	Increase, 234	" 311	" 77	Traversed by the Gt. North. R. R.
Alcorn	Increase, 393	" 1,047	" 654	Traversed by the Southern R. R.
Alcorn	Increase, 113	" 129	" 17	Traversed by the Mob. & O. R. R.
Alcorn	Increase, 163	" 1,135	" 970	
Total	Increase, 4,761	Increase, 11,876	Falling off, 7,115	

"In order to understand clearly the lesson taught by the above table," the pamphlet goes on to remark, "it may be well to state that, while the *natural* increase of our slaves from 1854 to 1857 was but 28,110, the *actual* increase within that period was so high as 41,321, showing a *gain* in the *whole* State, in those three years, on and *above* the *natural* increase, to the amount of 13,211 by importation. A *falling off* from the natural increase in any of the counties of the State is seen thus to receive more marked significance in view of the fact, that *in the whole State* the result has been, not a falling off, but an *increase*. While the *sixty* counties of the State, from 1854 to 1857, show an *actual addition* to their agricultural laborers of 13,000 *more than the natural increase* of those laborers, it is a very suggestive fact that a *decrease* of 7,000 *from the natural increase* has taken place within the same period in so many as *eighteen* of those counties."

Slave labor thus shown to be on the move from eighteen counties out of the sixty counties of the State, Colonel Alcorn proceeds in the next place to inquire into the cause of this movement. "This result," he says, "is too exceptional, too marked, too wide in its range, to be referable to a mere accident, to a mere local agency." The movement originates, *therefore*, he concludes, in some law of general application.

"The cause of this movement of our slave labor must," he adds, "be a *powerful* cause; for in nine out of the eighteen counties in which it has taken form, it has worked out its results in the face of the strong retardation of railway influences." Having thus fixed two of its characteristics, the address has reduced the inquiry to this form: "What, then, is the *powerful* and *general* agency that forces itself on our attention in this startling migration of our industrial labor?" Proceeding to examine this *powerful* and *general* agency, this acute inquirer selects, in the first place, those situations presenting it under the purest conditions.

"Railway influences," the pamphlet observes, "have, no doubt, retarded the action of this cause of slave migration. The counties most completely removed from the disturbing restraints of railways on this action, are those which enable us to investigate it in its simplest form. The river counties are, therefore, the best fields for the examination of this labor movement. Warren, it is true, is a railway county; but so long under the influence of the railway, it has, doubtless, settled down by this time to its normal condition. De Soto, however, is a river county, brought but recently under the disturbing action of railway stimulants, and may therefore be held excluded from the counties that furnish an evidence of the movement of our agricultural industry in undisturbed directness." His investigations narrowed down thus logically to the river counties, with the exception of De Soto, he furnishes the facts of his inquiries in those counties in the following tabular form:—

Slave Movement from 1854 to 1857, outside of Railroad Influences.

Counties.	Comparison of slave population in 1857, with that in 1854, as shown by actual returns.	Addition that should have taken place from 1854 to 1857, at the rate of natural increase.	Relation of the actual increase to the natural increase.	Remarks.
Wilkinson.....	Increase, 163	1,133	Decrease, 970	Upland.
Adams.....	Decrease, 410	1,204	Decrease, 1,623	Upland.
Jefferson.....	Increase, 456	907	Decrease, 451	Upland.
Claiborne.....	Decrease, 82	968	Decrease, 1,050	Upland.
Warren.....	Increase, 393	1,047	Decrease, 654	Upland.
Itasca.....	Increase, 1,210	429	Increase, 781	Bottom.
Washington.....	Increase, 1,828	804	Increase, 1,024	Bottom.
Bolivar.....	Increase, 2,779	263	Increase, 2,515	Bottom.
Coahoma.....	Increase, 1,727	165	Increase, 1,562	Bottom.
Tunica.....	Increase, 645	112	Increase, 533	Bottom.
De Soto.....	Increase, 1,458	882	Increase, 576	Part Bot., Part Up.

"This table," he remarks, "is strikingly suggestive. Setting aside De Soto as a railway county, and as belonging in part to both of the classes into which physics divide the river counties, *five* of the ten remaining counties show an active *increase* of their labor, while the *other five* show an active *diminution* of their labor. Here, then," says this keen analyzer, "we may trace out the nature of the agency that produces the migration of our agricultural industry. What *characteristic* common to the five counties immediately *south* of the Yazoo River is sufficient to account for this remarkable falling off in their slave labor? What *contradistinguishing* characteristic common to the five counties immediately *north* of the Yazoo River is sufficient to account for this remarkable accession to their plantation labor? Situated on the same great line of shipment, participating alike in the improved facilities of railway shipment, the only way to account for the fact, that from *one group* of those river counties, agricultural labor has been *drafted* to the extent of 4,700 hands, while agricultural labor has been *concentrated* in the *other group* to the extent of 6,410 hands, is to refer it to the circumstance, that one of those groups presents more inducements to the agriculturist than the other; that, in short, one of those groups is comparatively poor upland, the other luxuriant bottom land. This," says this skillful investigator, "furnishes the key to the migratory movement that has set in, even in the face of railway influences, among the sources of our State wealth, our agricultural labor."

For the purpose, doubtless, of confirming this conclusion from another point of view, Colonel Alcorn makes the following remarks: "The richest soils are found, all the world over, in river-bottoms. Settlement, however, has commenced among us, as an expediency, on the uplands; our richest valleys remaining to this hour, to a large extent, unreclaimed wastes. A light soil, with sloping surfaces, is the general character of the cultivated lands of the State; and under even the troublesome expedient of 'horizontalizing,' it is not to be wondered at in a climate of such heavy rain-storms, that many of the older plantations are becoming annually poorer in their yield." This explains the primary considerations that take form in the slave-migration which has commenced in Mississippi.

Having thus established the fact and the cause of a slave-movement from certain counties of Mississippi, the pamphlet proceeds to a practical application of those conclusions. 'Agricultural labor,' it says, "be it remembered, has commenced to move. This movement originates, it should be collected, in the immemorial cause of such movements—the

obtainment of richer lands. The migration that is going on among our agriculturists with this purpose, will go on to the accomplishment of that purpose, whether the good lands it seeks shall be found within the State or *without it*. * * * The same fact in Virginia (the impoverishment of the lands under culture) has for years past continued to draft the slaves of that State to the newer soils of Tennessee and Mississippi. The operation of this cause seems now to have reached our own doors. The richness of the lands of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas, threatens to produce even here the same *tendency to social change*, so much to be apprehended in the case of Virginia, by drafting our slaves still farther to the South and West *in retreat before the North*. As Southern men, true to the interests of the South—as Mississippians, devoted to the interests of the State—we are bound to limit the migratory movement that is going on among our slaves, our industrial laborers, to our own soil."

Political strategy knows no consummation to be desired more devoutly; but pray, most ingenious Colonel, how *are* you to limit the movement that is going on among your slaves to your own soil? The Earl of Moreton's interrogatory: "Who'll bell the cat?" has been lately quoted by yourself in commenting on a certain proposal for tampering with the regime of your hobby—the Mississippi River—and surely a gentleman of your fine practical judgment has not exposed himself to the sarcasm of such an inquiry. The intellectual seigniorage that you have exercised with so much excellence of purpose and result over the fortunes of the levee of your State, has, it is true, assisted largely in confining the slave-migrations of that State to her own soil by outbidding all *outside* temptations to movement, in behalf of the great valley of the Yazoo. But while the total absence of slavery from one set of counties is a political misfortune, so also, though perhaps less so in degree, is the total aggregation of slavery in another set of counties. Take, for example, the negro that delves the sides of the exhausted hills of Tishamingo; and let me ask how do you propose to retain this negro—to *fix* him—in Tishamingo when his master will, naturally enough, make the choice of placing him on the generous alluviums of Arkansas or of Texas? Economic laws would appear to make this simply impossible. And yet it were highly desirable to discover some effective remedy to prevent the operation of those laws from making Tishamingo, *by the total removal* of its slaves, a canker in the political system of Mississippi and the South. To all this Colonel Alcorn furnishes a conclusive answer. "This slave movement," he says, in his pamphlet,

' must, if we be true to ourselves, be immediately arrested—be fixed on the rich wastes along our water courses, along Coldwater, Tallahatchee, Yallabusha, Big Black, &c." And again, he says: "The time is not far distant when, it is to be hoped, the denudation of slave-labor that has set in along Big Black—in Warren, Hinds, and Madison—will, instead of being borne outside of the State, obtain the object of that denudation *in the bottom-lands of Big Black.*" This is a practical policy by which—while avoiding, on the one hand, the scylla of a *total aggregation of slavery in the Yazoo bottom*, and, on the other hand, the Charybdis of a *total desertion by slavery of the upland counties*—lines of slave interest may be extended, strong as the lines of Torres Vedras, throughout the length and breadth of the Southern States. Colonel Alcorn's suggestion of the drainage of Southern river wilds, thus arrived at, and thus presented in the *political* connection in which he has put it, it shall be put next, still keeping company with its originator's pamphlet, in the connection of a *practical* policy.

The Southern States generally are reticulated with lines of luxuriant wilderness. From the marine marshes of North Carolina to the fluvial wastes of Arkansas, the choicest soils of the South are but hotbeds of disease. Mississippi, however, may be selected from its sister States as furnishing a greater number and extent than, perhaps, any other, of unreclaimed 'bottoms.' Following the plan of Colonel Alcorn's address, his paper will confine itself, in its remarks on the proposed drainage of our fluvial wastes, to the facts affecting that drainage in the State of Mississippi.

From the limestone of the Tennessee valley on the northeast to its river-border on the west, and to its ocean-border on the south, the State of Mississippi is a mass of geological 'drift.' Permeated by an impalpable quicksand as it is, this drift is almost perfectly soluble in water; and, as a consequence, has been washed, under the operation of the rain-hed of centuries, into numerous "gulleys," ravines, and valleys. In a country of such moderate elevations, the number of these is extraordinary. In my explorations for the location of the Mississippi Central Railroad, in the counties of Holmes and Carroll, I encountered within some twenty miles a succession of ridges varying from 150 feet to 250 feet in height at intervals, from summit to summit, of about four miles. The number of breaks in the surface of that section of country may be inferred, in general terms, from this fact, when it is recollected that those ridges were "backbones," each the base of a distinct double system of ridge-ribs. When acting in 52, under a commission from the governor of that State, in

an examination of Colonel Garnett's report on the location of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, so numerous did I find the meshes of the network of valleys on either side of a small creek—Cheewalle—in Marshall County, that, notwithstanding my possession of some skill and expertness in unraveling topographical entanglements, I was unable to determine on the ground for my surveys without the assistance of an elaborate series of cross sections. The fact that I had, a few months previously, established the location of the Gallatin tunnel descent of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, in the countless chasms and ravines of the "Cumberland Ridge," *without cross sections*, gives, in connection with the bewilderment that I experienced at the crossing of Cheewalle Creek, a good general impression of the breaks in Mississippi topography. When it is recollected, in conjunction with these circumstances, that the main ridges intersecting the route across the northern counties of the State, and those intersecting the route through its central counties, obtain an elevation of from 200 to 400 feet above their respective outfalls, it will be readily understood that, with the off-shoots from each of those ridges so numerous, the valley-system of at least Northern and Central Mississippi constitutes a high proportion of the area of those sections of the State. From the same considerations it will be seen that the uplands of the State—the seats of its present production—may, if all of them be situated like those of the sections referred to, be held to consist of high narrow ridges, with quick slopes and numerous "washes."

The soil of the Mississippi uplands is light and friable. With surfaces, as may be seen from their topography, rolling and sometimes even steep, these uplands, under the "washes" of a quarter of a century, have undergone an active denudation of their vegetable mould. Their moulds have in some cases been swept away altogether. The subsoil being a sandy clay, this washing process has continued in places, within my own knowledge, to the extent of sterility in not only the hills themselves, but in also the adjoining valleys. In a few instances that have fallen under my observation, I have found that the hillsides had been stripped to utter nakedness; and that the storm-waters which had produced that stripping, carried after the mould of the top soil the sandy particles of the subsoil, until the "bottoms" around the base of the hills had become a bed of loam covered over with a thick coating of sand. The middle of some small valleys in North Mississippi, shows a great deal of rich, black mould; but on either side of that middle, sand begins to overlie it until, as the base of the uplands

approached, the sand is found to be so deep as to have placed the underlying mould beyond recovery by even the deepest sub-soiling. This sand-devastation has gone on, in some of the small valleys of the State, to a depth of two feet. "Horizontalizing" the furrow-scratches of the upland culture will probably *delay* the result; but, taken in connection with the steepness of its slopes, the heaviness of its rain-falls, the lightness of its moulds, and the solubility of its subsoils, the present stage of rain-washes in Northern Mississippi is strongly suggestive of the reflection, that the cultivated uplands of that State are in progress to the condition of clay 'barrens,' its minor bottom-lands to the condition of sandy deserts. The uplands of Mississippi fast "running out," the reclamation of her magnificent river wilds in every part of the State rises from the rank of a certainly admirable expedient of political strategy, to that of an imperative necessity of agricultural industry. Where in that State shall the agriculturists of Mississippi carry on their production, when their hills shall have become completely exhausted, unless a wise foresight enable them beforehand to carry it on in their valleys? The "bottoms" of that State are destined to be its salvation.

The necessity of its agricultural circumstances will, before long, make the fluvial wilds of Mississippi invaluable. But how may those lands be rated in political summations to-day? Col. Alcorn's pamphlet furnishes data for arriving at an answer to this question: "The cotton yield of the uplands of Mississippi does not average one half of a bale to the acre; whereas the yield of the 'bottom' averages at the very least a whole bale to the acre. One field-hand is necessary for the cultivation of ten acres in both cases; and therefore, his cost and maintenance being the same in both cases, *the simple transfer of the cotton labor of the State from the 'hills' to the 'bottoms'* would result, in effect, in doubling our labor capital, actually double our earnings, and double the amount of gold brought annually into the State in return for our agricultural surpluses." There is no general reason why the deposits of the interior water-courses of Mississippi should be less fruitful than the deposits of the "Father of Waters." Taking Colonel Alcorn's figures, the surplus production being double in the one case what it is in the other, every ten acres of bottom-lands brought into cultivation in Mississippi are equivalent, in effect, to an addition to the agricultural *area* of the upland of 20 acres, and to the agricultural *labor* of the *uplands of one field hand*. The food, clothing, &c., of the *equivalent laborer*, so added, in effect, constitutes another item in

equating these two sets of political values. Capitalizing the maintenance of this equivalent negro at \$1,000, setting down the cost of this equivalent negro at \$800, and the value of the 20 acres of equated upland at \$700, the reduction of ten acres of bottom-lands to culture, adds to the wealth of the State an *actual* value of \$2,500! The capital involved, exclusive of the value of the land, being a constant quantity in both cases, and the return on that capital being in the one case double what it is in the other, if an acre of upland be worth \$35, an acre of bottom-land, at the values set here upon the capital involved in its culture, is worth \$250! To impress this truth more popularly, I will repeat it in another form:

10 acres of upland at \$35 per acre, ...	\$350
Cost of laborer occupied in the cultivation of the same, ...	800
Capitalization of the annual outlay for feeding and clothing that laborer, maintaining him in sickness and old age, &c.	1,000
	\$2,150

\$2,150 of capital, or equivalent capital, is involved, according to these figures, in the cultivation of 10 acres of upland, to obtain a return of five bales of cotton, or of, say, \$200 a year. The cultivation of 10 acres of bottom-lands produces 10 bales; and therefore a return in money at the same prices, of \$400 a year. The return being thus double the capital, assuming the profit at the same rate as in the case of the 10 acres of upland, must also be taken as double; and hence the capital represented in the culture of 10 acres of bottom consists of the following items:

10 acres of bottom land at \$250 per acre	\$2,500
Cost of laborer occupied in the cultivation of the same, ...	800
Capitalization of the annual outlay for feeding and clothing that laborer, maintaining him in sickness and old age, &c.	1,000
	\$4,300

Subject to the fluctuations in the price of cotton, of negroes and plantation supplies, these figures demonstrate the *actual* value of an acre of bottom-land to be seven-fold greater than that of an acre of upland! Waiving, then, all considerations of political strategy, waiving all considerations of upland exhaustion, waiving all considerations of sanitary urgencies, let me ask, in the name of common sense, why it is that State interest and private interest have allowed, up to this hour, the river-bottoms of Mississippi to remain useless, not to say poisonous wastes?

Is there anything in the physical conditions of the internal river wilds of Mississippi to prevent their reclamation? Tip-pah bottom, Tuscombua bottom, the bottoms of the forks of Hatchee, the bottom of Big Black, contain tracts, within my own knowledge, unsurpassed in vegetable wealth by the de-

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of the Nile. The wilds traversed by the forks of Hat and those traversed by the Tuscumbia "branch" of that are finely adapted to the production of cotton; and require *Legislative initiation* to be brought into cultivation responsive action of private interest. So also of other courses in the counties of Tippah and Tishamingo. "The Black valley, for example," says Colonel Alcorn in his letter, "is composed of a 'second bottom' above overflow, other bottom subject to periodic inundation. This section is cultivated to the edge of the flood-water, and occupies some of the richest cotton lands in the world; but the lands of the bottom-proper are precisely the same, a soil enriched with the alluvial washings of a fine upland river, they are allowed to remain *in the midst of settlement* by an unproductive, but actually a pestilential waste." Description of Big Black bottom I am able to verify to the

The unhealthiness of its present condition is such that in the summer, in the surrounding country, are said localities *follow the set of the winds from Big Black*. In reference to the fertility of that magnificent wilderness, I am better informed than in the case of any of the other valleys that I named in this paper. My location of the Mississippi Railroad having been made along the northern edge of the waste for some forty miles, I visited the encampment of my field parties at several points of their progress through it; and therefore speak knowingly, when I declare it to be the richest tracts of land I have ever seen. The blackness of its mould, the denseness of its "brush," the darkness of its ferns, the girth and loftiness of its trees, the webby festoons of its "parasites," all conspire to show that the wilderness of Big Black requires but the hand of man to make it as abundantly fruitful of agricultural wealth as it is, in its present condition, of biliary disease.

Coming from the quality of the soil, one looks in vain to the wildernesses of Mississippi for something in their locality unfavourable for their existence as such in the present stage of civilization in that State. Surrounded in most cases by wealthy prosperous settlements, the "riparian owners," as they are called, by Colonel Alcorn, might, *under legislative inception*, have brought these fine domains into production, without the necessity of even removing the cabins of their slaves from the lands.

Not only, too, there is nothing in the character of the soil or situation of the bottoms of Mississippi to have forbidden their accomplishment. The overflows in the case of the lower river, to which my own observations—revised by the in-

strumentations of my assistants—has extended, are not very deep. The floods of Big Black I know to be inconsiderable along the river banks. Colonel Alcorn's pamphlet refers to this in these words: "Averaging some three miles wide for a length of about 150 miles, the bottom-lands of Big Black represent an area of some 500 square miles—some 300,000 acres—of a soil of more than Egyptian richness, reclaimable by some 300 miles of light levees! Worth scarcely \$2 50 an acre now, Big Black bottom wants but leveeing to make it worth, in its present state at least, \$25 an acre; and as the expenditure necessary to accomplish this will probably not overrun \$800,000 or \$900,000, the reclamation of that bottom will add to the landed estate of Mississippi, subject to a mortgage of less than \$1,000,000, a convertible value of some \$7,000,000."

But here I must take exception to the learned gentleman's figures. Assuming the embankments necessary for leveeing Big Black River, as equivalent to a bank averaging, for 300 miles, a height of 7 feet, a crown of 4 feet, and a base of 42 feet, the earthwork would cost \$4,500 a mile. The whole levee would thus run up to \$1,350,000. When, however, it is observed that a railroad runs through the bottom for forty miles; that another railroad crosses it forty or fifty miles lower down; and that a third railroad from Canton to Kosciusko is intended to run within a few miles of it for 60 or 80 miles, to value at \$25 an acre the lands of the Big Black waste when reclaimed, is preposterous. The very timber on lands so circumstanced will yield a handsome profit on even their clearing. \$50 an acre would be a much more reasonable figure than \$25, to set on the generous soil of that domain when effectually reclaimed. But under either statement of the case, there can be no doubt that the drainage of the Big Black wilds will be decidedly profitable to the State and to the individual. That there is neither a physical nor financial obstacle to the reduction of river wilds in Mississippi to culture has been established practically, under circumstances exceptionally unfavorable, in the case of Big Black. Encumbered with excessive labor and expense, as is the reclamation of an isolated tract in such a situation, two or three sections of that bottom were leveed on three sides; and, thus drained effectually, were brought into a high state of cultivation, a few years ago, by, if I remember correctly, Major Vaughan, of the county of Yazoo.

But why, in view of all these facts, have the fruitful soils of the river wilds of Mississippi been permitted to remain, within

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's throw of settlement on miserable uplands, noxious ? This sin is chargeable, as one of omission, to the t of the State Legislatures. Before anything can be the reclamation of these extensive tracts, the initia- must be taken by the makers of the Mississippi laws. gislation necessary in the case is, however, one with difficulties in the way of its practical operation. Colonel has sketched in a few words a general scheme for ing the conversion of those wastes. "Association of rian owners of those lands is," he says, "the first step ry for their reclamation ; and the lands themselves, into a common fund, will constitute, as under the sys- land-laws in Bavaria, an admirable security for raising to be invested in their reclamation." This is the true le on which to base a measure for the drainage of those but on sitting down to consider the details necessary e it with working powers, embarrassments are found out of its relations with so many principles of right t. Having, however, brought Colonel Alcorn's states- e argument step by step to his suggestion for the conver- the savage solitudes of the river-gods of Mississippi to the ted fields of Jupiter cotton, I shall let the subject for sent rest at this point. In the next number of the *Re-* owever, I shall present fully his scheme of river-drain- sketched out in the foregoing extract on that subject ; order to bring it more specifically under the notice of islators of Mississippi and other Southern States, shall r it with all the necessary machinery in the form of a ill.

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ew order of institutions has become an absolute neces- here a student can, in part at least, educate himself, his physical faculties are preserved in their full vigor sticity, and where those studies which are most useful ltivator of the soil shall be embraced, while those which st valuable shall be discarded. To remedy this grow- ficiency, agricultural and industrial colleges are organ- several of the States, and initiatory steps are taken in States to establish them.

Agricultural College of the State of Michigan has been al operation since May 13th, 1857. Its faculty consists esident and four professors, and it has accommodations nt for one hundred students. It was created in obe-

dience to a requisition of the revised constitution of 1850, and organized under a law of 1855. The farm consists of six hundred and seventy-six acres of land. Its design is to unite physical with mental culture, to afford the student a chance to earn in part his own education, and a chance to apply himself, free of tuition, to those sciences and practical arts, that may render him a scientific farmer and enlightened citizen. The effort has attracted anxious attention throughout the Union. Applications from other States and Canada have been made, sufficient to fill the institution. This is the first State institution, and the only exclusively agricultural one, yet in operation on this side of the Atlantic.

The New-York State Agricultural College was incorporated in 1853. Its creation was principally due to the energy and public spirit of the late lamented John Delafield, who was chosen its first president. After his death, the work was suspended. It was revived in 1856. The farm, embracing six hundred and eighty-six acres, was then purchased at a cost of \$45,000, principally by subscriptions of the farmers of Seneca county. It is situated on an eligible and commanding position, stretching from the village of Ovid to Seneca Lake. A loan by the State of \$40,000, for twenty years, without interest, is secured on four hundred acres of the estate. Instruction in those sciences and arts, calculated to enlighten the farmer and illustrate his calling, is to be combined in its system of education. The trustees have contracted for the erection of a portion of the main college building, to be completed in one year, for the accommodation of one hundred and twenty-five to one hundred and fifty students. Its available funds for the purpose now consist of \$35,000, not so much as the cost of a single school-house in many towns—a sum in sad contrast with the ostentatious exhibit around us of the agricultural capacities and wealth of the Empire State.

The People's College, at Havana, Schuyler County, in that State, was incorporated in 1853, and organized in 1857. Its Charter contemplates a capital of \$250,000, which may be increased to \$500,000, of which enough has been already subscribed to encourage the belief that the experiment will be fairly tested. The corner stone of the main edifice was laid on the 2d day of September last, and the trustees announced their intention of opening the institution within one year from that time. It should, perhaps, be designed as an industrial rather than an agricultural college; for it embraces various kinds of manual labor in its plan, while the farm consists of but two hundred acres of land. Labor is to be compulsory on both teacher and student—a plan, if successful, admirably

adapted to prepare a new class of professors, such as new institutions of the age will demand. It contemplates a wide range of study, no less, in the language of its charter, than 'Literature, Science, Arts, and Agriculture.'

The Farmers' High School of Pennsylvania was incorporated in 1855. It is located nine miles southwest of Bellefonte, in Centre county, very near the centre of the State, on two hundred acres of land, the munificent gift of General James Irvin. The farm, to which two hundred acres have been added by purchase, is being brought rapidly into a high state of cultivation. Its resources consist of \$10,000, donated by the State Agricultural Society; \$10,000, subscribed by the citizens of Centre county; \$5,000, a bequest of Elliot Cresson; and \$25,000, appropriated by the State. The further sum of \$25,000 has been appropriated by the State, on condition that an equal sum be subscribed by citizens. Its whole means, therefore, if the subscription is completed—of which no doubt remains—are \$100,000, and the farm donated by Gen. Irvin, estimated at \$12,000. One wing of the main college building is nearly erected, and the present design of the trustees is, to open the institution on the 16th of February next, with one hundred students, to be increased to four hundred.

The Maryland Agricultural College was incorporated by the State in 1856, and \$6,000 per annum appropriated toward its support, provided subscriptions to the amount of \$50,000 were first secured. That object having been effected during the last winter, the institution was organized and the college located in a tract of four hundred and twenty-eight acres of land, purchased at Bladensburg, near Washington, from the estate of the Hon. C. B. Calvert, the largest stockholder, and president of the board of trustees. The corner-stone of an extensive edifice was laid on the 24th of August last, and the design is, to push the work to rapid conclusion. Its educational plan proposes the development of the whole Man—moral, physical, and intellectual.

The State Agricultural College of Iowa was incorporated in March last. The preliminary appropriations are \$10,000, and five sections of very valuable lands heretofore granted by Congress for the erection of capitol buildings. Localities vie with each other in offers of money or land to secure its location, varying in value from \$10,000 to \$25,000. It is to be fully organized and located in January next.

The Minnesota Agricultural College was incorporated during the present year. It is located at Glencoe, McLeod county. The farm consists of three hundred and twenty acres of land. Its design, scope, and principal features, as well as those of

the Iowa college, closely resemble those of the Agricultural College of Michigan.

The agricultural colleges of Michigan, Iowa and Minnesota, are State institutions. Those of New-York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, are the joint works of public-spirited individuals and the respective States.

In anticipation of all these efforts, the Farmers' College, near Cincinnati, Ohio, under the auspices of F. G. Cary, Esq., and other public-spirited gentlemen, has for several years promoted the cultivation of the earth, in conjunction with literary and scientific pursuits. It is, however, a classical institution, embracing other objects, and prescribed labor in the culture of the soil is not a compulsory feature of its plan.

A bill establishing an agricultural college is now pending before the legislature of Ohio, and will probably be reached at its adjourned session the approaching winter. Its friends are not sanguine of its success. Whether it passes or not, the farmers of Ohio have one hundred and fifty thousand sons deprived of all possible means of education beyond the common school.

The legislature of Massachusetts, in 1856, incorporated a school of agriculture, which must be dependent entirely on subscriptions for its future establishment. In 1850, Massachusetts, in advance of other States, appointed commissioners to investigate the subject, and Prof. Hitchcock made an elaborate report relative to agricultural colleges in Europe. A plan was recommended for agricultural education, but no effective action was taken on the subject. Two citizens of Massachusetts, Benjamin Bussey, of Roxbury, and Oliver Smith, of Hatfield, have made princely bequests to be used in some remote future contingencies for founding agricultural colleges, but available for no immediate use.

Efforts are being made to establish agricultural colleges, also, in Virginia, South Carolina, Alabama, and Wisconsin.

Agricultural professorships have been endowed in the universities of Virginia and Georgia, by public-spirited individuals, and also exist in several other of the classical colleges of the country. In Michigan, the university has such a professorship. Scientific schools of an elevated character have been connected with many of the older institutions. These will all be merged in the several institutions with which they are allied. Superior facilities will be thus afforded for a man already educated, to acquire a better knowledge of agriculture, as an accomplishment, but very little is thus effected toward filling a deplorable hiatus in our educational systems.

It will be perceived that the enterprises in this country, de-

signed to meet the great necessity, are all in embryo. They are the initial attempts to satisfy an irresistible craving for an additional means of education. In Europe, however, agricultural and industrial colleges are no longer an experiment. The neglect of our Government stands in woful contrast to the paternal care exercised by the governments of Europe. We have no department of agriculture, not even a bureau of a department. Our Government may expend in ten years, on the whole subject of agriculture, as much as would cost to build a first-class steam-frigate to float around the world on pleasure excursions or rot in the docks. The Senate, during the last Congress, abolished its Committee on Agriculture, and thus before the world, ignored the subject. In France the subject is under the charge of the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and Public Works; in Prussia, a Board of Rural Economy, subordinated to the Minister of Agriculture, has control of the subject; in Russia, it is under the supervision of the Minister of Public Domains. The other nations of Europe generally take the subject under governmental patronage and custody.

In Prussia, agricultural education is perhaps best systematized. Prussia has four hundred and thirteen agricultural societies of different grades, all of which are affiliated together, and are subordinate to and report to the Board of Rural Economy. In all Germany, there are one thousand more such societies. Prussia supports fifty-one agricultural periodicals. In all Germany, there are eighty-nine such periodicals. Societies and periodicals, as well as schools, are devoted to special objects, bestowing their whole attention to perfecting some single branch of culture. Prussia has five agricultural colleges of a high order, twenty-eight elementary colleges, and fifty-seven special schools for affording instruction in horticulture, flax culture, sheep raising, etc., and seventy-two model and experimental farms. But the supervisory functions of the government do not end here. It aids in the dissemination of the best seeds and best machinery for flax culture. It distributes cuttings and seeds of the mulberry, a reeling and other machinery, to promote silk culture. It promotes pomological culture in the same efficient manner. So it encourages the propagation of the best breeds of horses. Draining engineers are detached to different parts of the kingdom to instruct the people, indicate the proper channels for drainage, and systemize it in the most economical manner. Lessened annual expense of the public roads, improved general health and increased production of the kingdom, are the ample remuneration to the government.

In France there is an Agronomic Institute, on a portion of the premises of the Palace of Versailles. There are three imperial colleges of a superior kind. There are eighty-six lesser schools, one in each of the departments. There are also polytechnic and industrial schools of a somewhat kindred nature. To the three national veterinary colleges, I have already alluded.

Russia appreciates the importance of stimulating agriculture as the sure foundation of her prosperity and her colossal power. Her efforts are comprehensive and vigorous. The government supplies land for various tests and experiments. Importation of implements, free of duty, has been allowed. Fairs are held in districts of the empire, and statistics are published at the public expense. Periodicals are published and gratuitously distributed, particularly among the clergy, that they may become missionaries of agriculture as well as of the gospel. Special schools are established for rearing horses and sheep, for culture of flax, silk, etc., and for the study of epidemics among cattle. A garden of a hundred acres was established fifty years ago, near Odessa, on the Black Sea, for the acclimation of seeds, fruits and plants of Southern Europe, and subsequently ten other gardens for similar purposes. Agents are dispatched, not only over the empire, but to foreign countries, to obtain information and improvements for dissemination. There is one imperial college at Gory Goretzk, and eight other colleges are established in different districts of the empire, all well endowed, and each possessing an extensive model farm, the least of which is fifteen hundred acres. In addition to these, are numerous farm schools. A Technological Institute for education of mechanics, chemists, and engineers, is also established. Graduates of the higher institutions have been sent abroad to be better fitted for professors at home. The students in the eight principal colleges are educated entirely at the public expense, and when they graduate, are supplied gratuitously with books, seeds, and tools; yea, more, the most meritorious are supplied with farms near their native villages as rewards for their proficiency. An intelligent Russian informed me that if the schools of Russia had done no other service than the eradication of superstitions and prejudices, their cost was well repaid.

Great Britain has established a system of agricultural schools for Ireland, but not for the rest of the empire. The principal agricultural college in England is at Cirencester. It is designed for the gentry only, and is an expensive institution. The question may be asked, "Why has England, the foremost country in agriculture, the fewest schools?" "The

reason is obvious. The landlord, the steward, the man of science, and the tenant farmer who employs the laborers, confer together on all proposed improvements. The landlord has the authority and the capital to execute their resolves. *They are the agricultural college.* Thus science, capital, and skill, are called into requisition. Hence, the island presents a scene of unrivaled rural beauty, and groans under her abundant productions.

Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, Sweden, Wirtemberg, Belgium, and other nations of Europe, earnestly promote agricultural education.

The first institution of the kind in Europe was at Hofwyl, in Switzerland, founded by Fellenburg, a name illustrious in the annals of education. The model school, perhaps, of all Europe, is that of Hohenheim, in Wirtemberg. The other most remarkable colleges are Cirencester in England, Grignon in France, Moglin in Prussia, and Gory Goretzk in Russia. In 1850, Prof. Hitchcock enumerated three hundred and fifty-two agricultural institutions in Europe, but he omitted those of Sweden, and some other countries. They have been greatly multiplied since that time. I think there are now five hundred colleges, schools, and model farms, in Europe, mostly the creation of the last twenty years. Their success is no longer in controversy. Neither prejudice nor ignorance is allowed to crush them. They are regarded as a great and beneficent agency, which governments, in the exercise of a benignant guardianship, are bound to exert, in increasing the productions of the earth and promoting the welfare of the race. They appreciate the great fact, that the surest way to promote the prosperity of the state, is to enlighten the individual and multiply his energies. I can only make an approximate estimate, but there are probably employed, in all the schools of Europe at the present time, two thousand professors and teachers, and fifty thousand students are in attendance upon them.

I have said nothing relative to the courses of studies, the discipline, or the plans, on which the European schools are conducted. It is sufficient to say that the design of them all, is a mastery of the physical sciences and practical arts that bear upon agriculture, and the harmonious union of study with labor. Their institutions, however, furnish no models for us. The lower order of schools in Ireland and Russia are for the peasantry, and of a grade not elevated enough to prove useful in this country. The best of their colleges are designed for the education of stewards, agents, and teachers, and not for proprietors who labor with their own hands, and who combine, like our countrymen, all the characteristics of landlord, tenant, and laborer, in the same man.

ART. III.—RELATION OF COMMERCE TO CHRISTIANITY.

"For wisdom is a defence, and money is a defence; but the excellency of knowledge is, that wisdom giveth life to them that have it."—ECCLES. vii. 12.

THIS is an excellence which wisdom possesses, and which money does not—that true wisdom, the "beginning of which is the fear of the Lord."

For, however riches may promote the propagation and acceptance of this wisdom which is religion, the one cannot and must not be substituted for the other. They are allied in so far that where money is rightly used, it resembles true wisdom, in affording a defence or safeguard against some of the ills of life, but we must not mistake this for life itself. While religion is the best friend of commerce, it is the glory of the latter, that, in the hands of God, it has frequently been made the honored instrument for advancing his cause and kingdom among men.

Commerce, like the early navigators, coasts timidly along the shore of this world, and makes some discoveries, and brings home some treasure, but wisdom launches boldly into the great deep of the future, and reveals, as the bourn of hope and the haven of rest, eternal life.

Commerce may aid in the spread of Christianity, but it is the prerogative of Christianity to regulate, to elevate, and to sanctify commerce. Christianity, without commerce, may lack funds for its enterprises, and may more slowly find its way from one part to another of the earth. Commerce, without Christianity, will soon learn to build its houses with fraud, and its chambers with violence, and will end its days in luxury and corruption. It will clothe itself in purple and fine linen, and fare sumptuously every day, until it shall lift up its eyes in hell, being in torments.

For while "money is a defence," the excellency, the crowning glory of religion is, that "it giveth life to him that hath it." It gives indestructibleness even to commerce itself, prolonging its existence by making *it worthy* to exist as the fountain of rich blessings to man. And when the keen eye has ceased to scan its ledger, and the busy hand to grasp its accumulations, and the sagacious brain to ponder its outgoings and incomings, the man of business, who "with all his gettings has got wisdom," will have made friends with the mammon of unrighteousness, and bear with him, through the redemption of a merciful Saviour, the eternal life to everlasting habitations. Take commerce away from Christianity, and it will be like the logging of Pharaoh's chariot-wheels, so that it will "driv

heavily." Take Christianity away from commerce, and the Red Sea of perdition will drive over the merchant and his ships.

Commerce adds to the comfort of this life, but "Godliness is profitable both for the life that now is, and for that which is to come."

In showing, therefore, the mutual relations existing between the two, it will be proper first to show the indebtedness of Christianity to trade, and then see what religion has done to pay the debt, together with that superiority of nature which entitles her to the service of all human institutions.

The most obvious aid rendered by commerce to the cause of religion has been in providing means for the transportation of missionaries, for the circulation of Bibles, and for the general promotion of civilization. It is rather singular that the first two missionaries of whom we read that they traveled by sea, should have encountered the most serious difficulties upon the voyage, to the great detriment of the ships and their owners.

Jonah, 862 A. C., had been ordered by God to announce the destruction of Nineveh, and fleeing from the unwelcome duty, he sped to the coast, took a merchantman at Joppa bound with her cargo to Tarshish, paid his fare, and embarked upon his voyage.

But in vain was the attempt to flee from the service of God; and such a storm arose upon the sea, that the mariners, after casting their cargo overboard, and making the most desperate efforts to weather the gale, were obliged to take the guilty prophet's own counsel, and throw him forth into the raging waters to save themselves from a common doom. "So they took up Jonah and cast him forth into the sea, and the sea ceased from her raging."

But the mariners gained more than they lost by the sacrifice of their freight, for "they feared the Lord exceedingly, and" (idolators as they were) "offered a sacrifice unto the Lord, and made vows."

The cargo was lost, but the men and the treasure of Nineveh were saved.

Paul's famous voyage from Jerusalem to Rome resulted still more unfortunately for the vessel in which he sailed.

The centurion Julius embarked with Paul and other prisoners in his charge, in an Alexandrian ship, loaded with wheat, and bound for Italy. In vain the captive but missionary apostle warned the officers of the danger of the voyage at that season of the year. They persisted in spite of the wind and tempest, until, being vanquished in the strife with the ele-

ments, they also were obliged to throw overboard their cargo to lighten their sinking vessel, and at last, as the only safety for their lives, ran her upon the rocks, and, as soon as they had disembarked, she was broken to pieces by the waves. But their great passenger had not been idle. He had made the centurion his friend, and became, before long, the most honored and useful man of their company, and it were worth to commerce alone the wreck of a navy, fairly to establish Paul as a missionary in the heart of imperial and bloody Rome. The ship, indeed, was wrecked, but Christianity escaped the tempest, and floated with the Roman eagles to the boundaries of Europe. This apostle had, however, many times before this, availed himself of the aids of commerce in bearing to the Gentiles the great truths with which he was charged. The important commercial places, Tyre, and Sidon, and Ephesus, and Rhodes, and Corinth, though most of them had declined from their meridian splendor, still afforded him an audience for the story of the Cross, composed as well of their citizens as of the merchants and mariners of the civilized world; and the very nation—the Phœnicians—who had been the first to bear the arts and refinements of civilization to the *Ultima Thule* of ancient longitude, were also permitted the distinguished honor of bearing to all the distant countries, where their trading posts had been for centuries established, the earliest teachers and missionaries of our holy religion.

The early teachers of Christianity followed the great tracks of commerce across the earth without being confined to them.

The deserts and the mountains, the wilds of Bactria and of Thrace, where small temptation to cupidity existed, still were peopled by those whom the Son of Man came to seek and to save, and they were sought, and many were found and saved. Yet, as a general rule, even in that early time, where Christianity would convert a nation, commerce marked out the road, provided the vehicle, and assembled the audience. Apostles and Evangelists proclaimed a truth, new to the world's ear, upon the shores of inland seas, or in the great markets of the earth, or took ships for the distant ports of the Euxine, the Ægean, or the Mediterranean, to meet the heathen of every name and every form of idolatry assembled there, or joined the great caravans of merchants with their rich freight of gold, spices, and slaves, performing their annual pilgrimage down through Egypt deep into the unknown recesses of the Sahara, or through the great desert, and Araby the Blest, to where the *Ganges rolls his consecrated waves*.

As long as the Church was pure and missionary in its character, it continued to avail itself of the means of transport-

ation, the discoveries and the civilization to which the love of adventure or gain had prompted mankind; and when the Church became corrupt, and departed widely from the integrity of the faith, the same great channels and resources of which it had by that time gained the control were opened to it for the propagation of a mutilated gospel, better still a thousand fold than the heathenism which it supplanted.

Still, however, as the evening of the dark ages drew down upon Europe, the visible church gradually became subject to the dominion of the pope; yet, rent by frequent schism, and very far gone from original righteousness, both to faith and practice, it lost to a great degree its missionary spirit, and like any other kingdom of this world, propagated its tenets chiefly by the sword. Whether against the Saracens or the Waldenses, or subsequently the Protestants, implements of war or torture for some centuries made more converts, or extinguished more heretics, than the preaching of the Cross.

Civilization was smothered under the folios of stupid monks, and shrieked from the crucible of the alchemist in monasteries, or took refuge in the splendid kingdom of the Moors, in Spain and Portugal, while Christianity disported her garments of dazzling white among the persecuted fugitives of the Pyrenees, or found a refuge beyond the grasp of the papacy, along the frozen shores of the extreme north.

In 828, ten Venetian ships went to Alexandria, which port, at that time, was closed to most of Europe, and bore back with them the supposed body of St. Mark! In the year 1121, Greenland sent to the shores of North America a live missionary bishop—a cargo which, tested by the weights and measures of commerce alone, is worth a whole college of dead apostles.

There had been for a century an Iceland colony near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and perhaps upon the Island of Newfoundland, discovered A. D. 1000, by Biorn, the son of Heliof. It was named Winland or *Wineland*, because grapes grew there spontaneously, and the enterprising Northmen traded with the native Esquimaux for fine furs in exchange for their goods. It was to this colony that a missionary bishop was sent from Greenland, and though we have no record of his labors or his success, yet we find in this most interesting circumstance another illustration of the true missionary spirit following in the wake of commerce. As early as the fifth century, before Rome had sunk in hopeless ignorance and apathy, Gregory the Great sent Augustine with forty monks to England to convert the Saxons from Druidism, and they found that the Britons, the original inhabitants of the island,

now driven to the North, had been Christianized centuries before, even by the apostles themselves or their immediate companions, and they had all this time preserved their liturgies and their episcopacy. Certain peculiarities in their ritual proved that they could not have been converted through the agency of Rome, but that they had received their first knowledge of the truth from Gaul, or more probably from teachers taken thither directly from Asia Minor along the great channels of Phœnician trade.

England, during the long and proud period of her commercial supremacy, has planted with one hand the seeds of civilization and commerce, and with the other has sunk deep into the earth the flag-staff of the standard of the Cross, and floated its ample folds to the astonished winds. Her colonies in North America brought with them, either as Puritans or Prelatists, the religion of their fathers, and their descendants receive, as their best birthright, an undefiled Christianity. And while Spain, after the expulsion of the Moors and the discovery of America by the great Genoese, continued to monopolize the trade of the southern continent, and tortured the wretched natives for their gold, she also was careful to supply them with the priests of such religion as she knew herself, and to bring into subjection her converts, made by force, or fraud, or persuasion, to that church which claimed and claims the world.

In the sixteenth century, Francis Xavier, a Roman Catholic, actuated by a true missionary spirit, earned for himself the title of the Apostle of India, by his labors and great success in bringing the Hindoos and the Japanese to a knowledge of his faith.

But here again he pursued the track of commerce, and found that Portuguese traders had already a long-established and lucrative intercourse with our antipodes. As we draw near to our own times, the history of which I am speaking becomes a history of the civilized world, and is too well known and too vast for me to attempt a condensation of it. God, in his providence, so often opens a way for his gospel, by first sending out civilized men on mercantile errands, that it has almost ceased to attract observation. Two instances, however, are worthy of record, in which the great Head of the Church and most merciful Saviour of lost men has overruled, in an especial manner, the covetousness of mankind for the spread of his blessed gospel.

The one occurred but a few years ago, in the history of this same England, in her persevering and successful attempt to introduce opium into China. Baffled in her private efforts at

smuggling, she sent out a fleet and an army to kill the miserable inhabitants, as a great wit has declared, like a cruel boy killing flies upon a summer's day. But by her oppressive adherence to this most despicable commercial interest, she compelled the opening of five ports of that great empire for the missionaries and their holy religion, which is destined to cast down every lofty imagination, every temple of idolatry, and everything that opposeth or exalteth itself or maketh a lie, throughout the whole earth.

Another instance occurs in which the wonderful providence of the Lord of Hosts has overruled the enterprise of commercial nations for good when they meant it not so; neither did their heart think so, but they only meditated enriching themselves by a traffic that should supply labor for the cultivation of the earth. The coasts of Africa having almost no great rivers, no islands, gulfs, or peninsulas, were closed in great measure alike to civilization and the gospel, and there seemed no way of evangelizing the natives but by transporting *them*, if possible, to better and lighter lands. This the *slave trade*, with all the indifference to human life and suffering that marked its earlier conduct, has actually done, and now it is computed that there are more negroes in this country, members of churches, than heathen converts at all the missionary stations of the world besides. Nor does the benefit end here. A most philanthropic and benevolent society is sending them back to their native land again, and already powerful colonies are seated upon the iron-bound coast of that dark continent, and from them civilization and Christianity are said to be eating their way gradually into the interior. This does not of course justify the horrors of the "middle passage;" but when we are taunted with the evils of slavery, we may say, with truth and with triumph, that its good consequences are a fair offset to its evils, and that it has been fraught with inestimable benefits to millions of human beings who, without it, would have lived and died under the shade of their palm-tree and by the golden sand of their rivers, worshippers of the devil, and bondmen, perhaps, to heathen lords.

The advantage of commerce to Christianity has not, however, been confined to the mere transportation of the gospel and the missionaries, indispensable as that service is. Commerce has printed our Bibles and built many of our churches for us. Without it the very invention of printing were of little use to mankind. The first edition, even, of the Bible, could never have been struck off and sold but through the instrumentality of long-established laws of trade. The market which commerce created could alone have justified the ex-

pense. The men engaged in those great societies which are scattering at this day the Word of Life among the nations, are mostly men trained in the walks of trade, and carrying on their beneficent work upon strictly commercial principles.

They must count the cost before they can either sell or give, and though agriculture and the professions contribute their share, yet the "sinews" of this "war" in which the church militant is engaged with the kingdom of darkness, are chiefly furnished in our great commercial towns where money circulates abundantly, and fortunes are easily made. There agents most frequently visit; there audiences are most readily assembled; and there the influence of fashion, sympathy, and imitation, most predominates.

The splendid churches, also, that adorn our cities, and very often those in the rural districts, constantly present to the eye the pleasing indication as the fruits of commerce well applied. The building of a church is as much subject to the rules of commerce as the building of a private residence or a school-house, and not to mention whole communities of liberal contributors, individual merchants have often testified their gratitude to God for the success they have met with by building or endowing some house of prayer consecrated to his service and the glory of his great name.

And there, in the lapse of time, multitudes of the ignorant and such as are out of the way, whom Jesus came to save, have been gathered into the ark of safety, and generations have learned to worship the God of their fathers, with blessings upon the head of him but for whose bounty they might have continued to dwell in ignorance of God and eternity.

Commerce also provides, where it most prevails, for the support of those whose duty it is to minister in holy things. In short, were you to withdraw from the Church the money supplied by business men, merchants, and tradesmen, the cause would languish everywhere, and the Church would have to cast herself directly upon the right arm of the omnipotent God for support, for enlargement, and for life.

But while we cheerfully acknowledge the great obligation which Christianity owes to business men for her extension and upholding, yet commerce owes more to the gospel than the gospel to commerce.

The case of Zaccheus affords a happy illustration of the benefit of conducting business upon those principles which the church exists, and the gospel is preached, to enforce. He had been a *publican*, or a tax-gatherer, appointed by the Roman government over the Jews.

His great object had been the amassing of his own fortune, regardless of the wants of the poor, and by participating in the exactions of his detested class and calling.

But when the grace of God entered his heart, he publicly vowed his determination henceforth to conduct his business upon the most rigid rules of justice, and subject to the behests of the most comprehensive Christian charity. "Behold, Lord, the half of my goods I give to the poor, and if I have wronged any man I restore him fourfold."

And that day salvation came to his house. The merchant or tradesman who receives the gospel into his own heart at once renounces that "cheating which never prospers," if he have ever been guilty of it, makes reparation where he has defrauded, bestows, out of the fullness of a tender heart, his goods to feed the poor, their bodies and their souls, and *salvation comes to his house*. He lays up treasure for himself in heaven.

If commerce has built hospitals and churches, it was Christianity that put it into her heart and opened her purse-strings. The world had commerce for centuries, while her only temples were erected to idols and hospitals were unknown. Christianity, by elevating and teaching the poor, has cleared them out of the way of trade, and made them producers of something, and not consumers merely, or drones in the hive, or mendicants in the poorhouse, or criminals in the prisons, or felons on the gallows.

If commerce has often transported Christianity from shore to shore, the latter has converted the mariners, and brought the most savage nations to submit themselves to the just and equal laws upon which the very existence of commerce depends. If commerce has oftentimes opened an avenue to the heart of a savage nation for the herald of the truth, so has she in her turn been obliged to come as a suppliant to the meek missionary for an influence almost omnipotent over the savages, who trusted and loved him, or been shamed into perseverance by his inflexibility, charged as he was with a high commission of eternal life to immortal souls, or called upon him to be a mediator and interpreter in her most delicate and difficult negotiations. The noble Dane, Egede, held on like the grasp of death to his forlorn mission in Greenland, when the Danish ships were ordered home by the government from a hopeless commerce, leaving him ignorant of the language, to freeze or to starve, until the gracious providence of God opened a new channel of trade, in which the Danish king was willing to embark, and which the tenacity of the missionary had rendered practicable.

The British, in their most unjust war upon China, gladly availed themselves of the mediation of Parker and Boone to secure by treaty what they had achieved by arms, the opening of that mighty empire to the trade and civilization of the West.

And when Hyder Ali had desolated the Carnatic, and in the impassioned language of Burke, had "put perpetual desolation as a barrier between him and those incorrigible and predestinated criminals, whom no treaty and no signature could bind," and he was willing to sheathe his sated sword and lie down in his lair like a lion that has lapped his fill of blood, he asked, "Where is Schwarz? Send me the missionary. I have faith in his word, and will treat with him." The great continent of Africa is now being opened to the commercial world by the explorations of a missionary; and the heralds of the Cross are the interpreters to the merchant of most of the languages spoken by uncivilized nations. And such is the happy influence of the virtues enjoined in the New Testament upon all sorts and conditions of men, that the most successful and prosperous commercial nation will forever be the most Christian, where justice holds the scales, and industry acquires, and frugality expends, and liberality embellishes, and charity gives as God gives mercy to every one that asketh. While thus Christianity, under her Divine Founder, has availed herself of the energy of the merchant, in propagating her tenets, she has complied with her own rule to "owe no man anything," and has returned more than she has ever received.

But the relations of the two cannot be determined by the settlement of a question of profit and loss. The Christian religion deigns no alliance upon a footing of equality with anything human. She comes to mankind clothed with the authority of God.

Commerce, and education, and government, are not her masters nor her allies, but her servants. They are of right subject to the laws of the Bible, and just in proportion as they depart from those laws, are they a curse, not a blessing to men. There is not one law for merchants and another for Christians. What is wrong in the church is wrong in the counting-house and the workshop. Christianity claims equally the control of both. She demands that her principles of truth, of justice, and of honesty, laid down in her statute-book, principles as pure and immutable as the character of God, shall regulate every commercial transaction between man and man. *It is as much the duty of her ministry to apply the rules of her morality to the merchant, as to urge the reading of the*

Bible, and private and family prayers, upon the communicant. She says to the merchant, "You must do as I direct, and you depart from my rules at your peril." She furnishes him a law by which he must buy and sell, must determine his debts and credits, must regulate his hazard and speculations, his advertising, his transportation, and his contracts.

She claims supremacy as well over corporations as private traders. She will investigate the books of the East India Company, review the entry the merchant made last night in his ledger, and audit the accounts of the huckster that sells bananas at the street corner. She asserts her right to adjust the balance and the yard-stick, to affix the value of coin and bank-notes, to gauge the barrel and measure the cotton bale, according to standards kept in heaven, forever under the sleepless and unbribed eye of God. "A false balance is an abomination to the Lord, but a just weight is his delight." She will inspect every account that is settled, and re-open every contract that has been adjudicated. She will find all the lost papers, and recall all the forgotten promises, and subpoena all the dead witnesses. Her inflexible morality will borrow nothing from the maxims of trade, and will yield nothing to them. If the merchant have before him the alternative of failure or dishonesty, she says to him, "Fail, then! Better fail here than hereafter. Pay your debts to the last farthing like an honest man, and begin life again with my blessing upon you—a blessing that maketh rich and addeth no sorrow." The great Author of Christianity receives no benefit from commerce as an independent party.

Rather he exacts from the merchant the building of churches, the forwarding of missionaries, and the printing of Bibles, at the cost of his license to enrich himself by trade, and as a tribute for protecting and prospering his enterprises.

All that commerce contributes to the spread of the gospel of Jesus Christ, is but the payment of rent to the Creator for the use of his mines and forests, his winds, and rivers, and oceans. It is the premium for the insurance of goods, against lightning and tempest, "hurricanes and oak-cleaving thunderbolts."

Let not commerce plume herself upon what she has done for the gospel. Let her rather be humble and penitent that she has done so little—that she has shown so little gratitude to the Providence that has permitted and prospered her—that she has lost sight of her own interest by ministering to selfishness and *luxury*, while she ought to have been civilizing and *Christianizing the nations*, for the multiplication of her harvests and the repletion of her treasures—that she has sought the tem

- poral, rather than the eternal good of man. These are her sins of omission; but if in any case commercial power has been prostituted to destroy that it should construct, we would fain hope that such an instance would be the exception and not the rule—that the true merchant is recognized as the true *man*—faithful to his promise, conscientious in his representations, honest in his dealings, “not slothful in business, fervent in spirit, serving the Lord;” and it is indeed sufficiently obvious that the very existence of commerce implies a certain degree of confident reliance upon mercantile integrity.

Bad men have perverted the religion of Jesus Christ itself, and the knave behind the counter would be a knave at the bar, or in the pulpit. Let it be the aim of every honorable merchant to maintain the very highest standard of public opinion in his profession, and thus in time will the blots and stains that have disfigured commercial annals be removed, and the legitimate tendencies of commerce to promote truth and honesty will have scope to become effect.

ART. IV.—THE VALLEYS OF VIRGINIA—THE RAPPAHANNOCK.

A DESCRIPTION and history of this valley, however concise and imperfect, should possess interest, as well on account of the great beauty and fertility of the valley, as on account of its historical associations. It was one of the earliest settlements in the old United States; and its population advanced upward from the Chesapeake, *pari passu* with that on James River—for we find a fort established, by act of the House of Burgesses, on the land of Captain Boyd, at the falls of James River, in 1669, to repel the attacks of the Indians; and a similar one, under Lawrence Smith, of Gloucester, by the same act, at or near the falls of Rappahannock.

This is the most fertile and productive tide-water valley on the Atlantic coast of the Union—and the most beautiful, except that of the Hudson. Captain Smith sailed up this river, to its falls, soon after the settlement of Jamestown. We find no mention of it again until the county of Lancaster sent members to the House of Burgesses, in 1652. Four years afterward, the old county of Rappahannock was cut off from it. We may fairly conclude, from this fact, and from the slow progress of population in the colony, for the first hundred years after its settlement, that, at least as far back as 1630, the colonists must have begun to occupy the lands on either side of this river, *near its mouth*.

Lancaster county included a narrow strip of country, o

either side the river, of undefined, if not indefinite extent, toward the mountains. Middlesex county, originally a part of Lancaster, was erected into a separate county, between 1650 and 1660. Rappahannock county, like Lancaster, from which it was taken off, originally included a very narrow territory, on either side the river, extending upward to the Blue Ridge, the *Ullima Thule* of the old colonists; for it was not until Governor Spotswood's day, that the daring attempt was made to reach and ascend, what was thought, till then, an impassable barrier. A half-century thereafter, our settlements were attempted in the valley of the Shenandoah.

From Rappahannock county, on the south side of the river, the narrow county of Essex was taken off in 1692. From Essex Spotsylvania was formed, in 1721; and Caroline from parts of Essex, King and Queen, and King William, in 1727.

Richmond county was formed from that part of Rappahannock county lying on the north side of the river, in 1692. The county of Rappahannock ceased to exist after Essex and Richmond were formed. It was the parent of many counties, and one of its posterity, the present county of that name, has done well to revive the memory of her deceased ancestor, within the confines of her once wild and spacious domains.

From the county of Richmond, the then extremely narrow county of King George was taken off, in 1720. It included Leedstown, now in Westmoreland, and Falmouth, now in Stafford. As Westmoreland and Stafford extended next to and opposite it, on the Potomac, at two points near Mattox and Lamb's Creek, King George county could not have been more than four miles wide. This clinging to the rivers, and slow progress toward the interior, is a characteristic of the English, who, like the Dutch, are an aquatic and amphibious people. The Spanish and Portuguese had occupied all of South America, and a great part of North America; and the French built forts, or settled, from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi, and the English had crept up a hundred miles along a few Atlantic rivers.

But for this peculiarity of the English, the counties of the Northern Neck would have originally extended from river to river, which were the natural and most convenient boundaries.

King George and Stafford, and a small part of Westmoreland, have been, since, or about the time of the Revolution, so extended. Richmond county, lying in a long, narrow strip, along the Rappahannock, is still more convenient to Westmoreland Courthouse, than a large portion of that county, most of which lies, in a still longer strip, along the Potomac. No other two large rivers in the world run parallel, and so near

to each other, for a long distance, as these two. Their distance apart, at the head of tide-water, on Rappahannock, some hundred and twenty miles from their mouths, is about twelve miles; and thence to the Chesapeake, it averages about twenty miles. In some places, the distance from one river to the other is not more than eight miles. This propinquity of these great rivers is owing to the fact, that, strictly speaking, they are not rivers at all, but rather, arms, creeks, or inlets of the ocean, like the Chesapeake Bay itself. No back country could supply waters to two great rivers, in such immediate vicinity. They are fed from the ocean; and if all the streams running into them, from above and below their falls, were diverted, it would not at all diminish the volumes of their waters.

The other rivers falling into the Chesapeake (or, rather, flowing out from it) are of a similar character. The Patapsco, the Patuxent, the York, the James, and the Elizabeth River, are creeks or bays, not rivers. Navigable to their falls, they are part of the ocean; and the Federal Government might remove impediments to safe navigation, without violating the rules of the strictest construction. The Coast Survey has been very properly extended up them, and light-boats anchored in them. It would cost less to remove obstructions, than to keep up these light-boats, which are rendered necessary by these obstructions. The most hair-splitting abstractionist cannot distinguish between the constitutionality of the two measures. We feel confident that the age of abstractions has passed away, and that of practical measures commenced. The South is awakened to the necessity of developing all her physical resources; of increasing her wealth, her population, and her strength; and will omit no legitimate means of attaining her ends, by invoking individual, State, or Federal aid, as circumstances may require and justify.

The Northern Neck of Virginia, extending from the Chesapeake to the sources of the Potomac, and including the most fertile portion of the intermontane valley, is the finest part of Virginia. By means of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad, and the Potomac and Rappahannock rivers, the whole of this rich and productive region has become tributary to Baltimore. Richmond, since the invention of railroads, should be the market town for the whole of the Rappahannock valley, for Baltimore is inaccessible in winter, and tedious of access at all times; while Richmond, with short branch roads connecting the Fredericksburg and Richmond Railroad with the Rappahannock, would be *within three hours' ride* of this whole region. *Probably, these branch roads will not be constructed until the*

Great West pours her mighty products into the Richmond through the Central and Covington roads. Ultimately, they are inevitable. Whether they will benefit the people of this valley is very doubtful. They are already the richest agricultural population in America, averaging, we should think, a property to each man, whose lands adjoin the river, of near a hundred thousand dollars. The large size of the river farms is a great obstruction to neighborhood social intercourse. Railroads would break up this neighborhood intercourse altogether, and supply its place with city intercourse, which is not desirable for country people, for it is apt to destroy their love of country life and agricultural pursuits, and to beget extravagant ostentatious habits. Moreover, it is to be apprehended, that railroads will everywhere occasion absenteeism, the greatest curse that can afflict a people. When farmers can live in town, and supervise their distant estates by means of railroads, our country will become, like Ireland and the West Indies, a new series of plantations, inhabited by negro slaves or white hirelings—with a few hermit-like overseers scattered here and there.

Railroads, when they do not occasion the rise of towns and cities, impoverish the country which they pervade—for by furnishing cheap access to large towns, they break up the villages, stores, schools, mechanic-shops, hotels, etc., along their routes, which they have rendered unnecessary. They always occasion the rise of towns, cities, or villages, at their termini, even although they should not terminate on navigable streams. When their termini are on such waters, the rise and growth of villages and towns are rapid.

Fredericksburg, at the head of tide-water, is the only point on the Rappahannock where a considerable city is likely to arise. It possesses fine water-power, is very healthy, beautifully situated, contains a population of five or six thousand, and is the nearest point of navigable water to the Great West. Population advanced very slowly from the mouth of the river up to this point. There was none there in 1671, for we find an act passed in that year, to establish a frontier fort and garrison "at or near the falls of Rappahannock," of which Major Lawrence Smith, of Gloucester, was appointed commander. Again, in 1679, we find "An Act enabling Major Lawrence Smith, and Captain William Bird, to seize certain lands at the head of Rappahannock and James rivers." This last scheme, we presume, proved abortive, for we hear nothing of Lawrence Smith and his proposed colony afterward. *Spotsylvania* was formed into a county in 1720, and *Fredericksburg* established, by act of House of Burgesses, as a town

in 1727. There could have been but little population about and above it at that time ; for Col. Byrd, in his visit to it in 1732, says of it : " Besides Col. Willis, who is the top man of the place, there are only one merchant, a tailor, a smith, an ordinary keeper, and a lady, who acts both as doctress and coffee-woman." The act for establishing the town, recites— " Whereas, great numbers of people have of late seated themselves and families upon and near the river Rappahannock, and the branches thereof, above the falls," etc. Fifty acres of land belonging to John Royston, and Robert Buckner, of Gloucester county, are directed to be laid off as a town. The trustees appointed for this purpose are, John Robinson, Henry Willis, Augustine Smith, John Taliaferro, Harry Beverly, John Waller, and Jeremiah Clowden : All of these, except the last, are familiar names, though few are now to be found, at or near Fredericksburg.

Falmouth, at the falls, on the opposite side of the river, was erected into a town by the same act. It was then in King George county, now in Stafford. The trustees were, " Robert Carter and Mann Page, Esquires, Nicholas Smith, William Thornton, John Fitzhugh, Charles Carter, and Henry Fitzhugh, the younger, gentlemen." Falmouth has never been more than a small village, but always a busy and wealthy one. Coming down the river, we find its banks studded with fine dwellings, rich and highly improved farms, and an intelligent and refined population. Twenty-two miles below Fredericksburg, we arrive at the villages of Port Royal, and Port Conway ; the former in Caroline county, the latter in King George.

We have a patent before us from Sir William Berkley, Knight, Governor of Virginia, &c., to Thomas Chetwood, and John Prosser, for " five thousand acres of land on the north side of Rappahannock, in the freshes," granted " in consideration of the transportation of one hundred and six persons." This patent includes the site of Port Conway, Walsingham, the estate of George Turner, Esq., a part of Richard Turner's farm, and all the river farms up to that of John Dickison, which was afterward patented by a Mr. Berry, and remained in the Berry family until some fifteen years since. From this patent, and others in my possession, I ascertain, that white settlements had not advanced up the north side of the river as far as Port Conway, until 1667. We shall show, that it advanced more rapidly on the south side. Besides the farms of the Messrs. Turner just mentioned, this patent includes Belgrave, the residence of Carolinus Turner, which formerly belonged to the Conways, and where President Madison, a

descendant of the Conways, was born. His birthplace was near the river, and within a hundred yards of the present village of Port Conway. Near where the old house stood, the present manorial establishment of Mr. Turner stands. Millbank, a fine old residence, the seat of Mr. Augustine Fitzhugh, adjoins Belgrove. This belonged for many generations to the Skinkers, a highly respectable and wealthy family who emigrated to this section from Bristol, a century and a half ago. It has gone out of the name, but not out of the blood, for Mrs. Fitzhugh was a Miss Skinker. Canning, until lately the property of the Carters, now belonging to Lieut. William T. Smith and Henry Bird Lewis, adjoins Millbank, and is included in the Chetwood and Prosser patent. This is also a fine establishment.

The term "freshes," in this and other old patents and deeds, is worthy of notice. It shows that the flats on the river were subject to water. They certainly were never inundated by the tide, for they are all from ten to twenty-five feet above the highest tides. These lands are now too dry, but contain many natural sinks or basins, which, before the forests were cleared away, were probably filled with rain water.

The "one hundred and six persons" transported, were servants, consigned to merchants in the colony, for sale for a term of years. They were imported in very great numbers; many of them were worthless, but some well educated, and served for clerks and teachers to the farmers. Sir William Berkley, in 1770, in answer to interrogatories submitted to him by the Lords Commissioners of Foreign Affairs, in which they inquire, "What number of English, Scotch, and Irish, have for these seven years last past come yearly, to plant and inhabit within your government; and also what *blacks* or *slaves* have been brought in within the same time?" Answer: "Yearly there comes in of servants *about fifteen hundred*; most are English, few Scotch, and fewer Irish, and not above two or three ships of negroes in seven years."

He says nothing of the free emigrants, though included in the interrogatory. Their number was too inconsiderable for notice. In the same examination, Sir William says: "But I think God *there are no free schools or printing*; for learning has brought disobedience, and heresy, and sects, into the world, and printing has divulged them and libels against the best government. God keep us from both!"

The advance of infidel and anarchical doctrines, and the necessity for shackling the press in France, show that Sir William was not altogether wrong. There are no *unmixed goods*; and learning and a free press are no panaceas for *moral*

evil. We can only say, that in some countries their good effects have, so far, overbalanced their bad effects. A very small portion of the population is descended from transported convicts, for few were sent over; a very large portion from indentured servants, who were transported in great numbers. Their descendants cannot now be distinguished from the rest of the population. No one's genealogy can be traced back to those servants. The morality and intelligence of the rich and poor do not differ widely. Good moral deportment, education, and refinement of manners, generally secure admission into the best society. This homogeneous population was originally composed of various elements, which have gradually blended and harmonized. First came the English cavaliers, with their servants and dependants; next, the Scotch merchants—an intellectual, moral, industrious, and honest race—who settled along the rivers and in the towns and villages, soon grew rich, and intermarried with the cavalier families. Next came the French Huguenots, a race of men unsurpassed by any other whatever. About 1715 and 1745, after the unsuccessful rebellions of the elder and younger Pretender, large numbers of Scotch Jacobites migrated to the State. They were not merchants, and generally studied and practised learned professions.

Virginia once contained a small exclusive, cavalier aristocracy, possessed of much land and more pride. Her institutions are still aristocratic; but since the right of suffrage has been extended, all her white citizens have become aristocrats. They have an inferior race beneath them, and feel the pride of place and citizenship, like the Romans and Athenians. Athens, commonly called a pure democracy, was eminently aristocratic. There were in the city nineteen slaves to each freeman; and when we take off the women and children, and recollect that the exercise of the right of suffrage was deferred to a maturer age than with us, we shall find that about one inhabitant in a hundred had a voice in public affairs. Pure democracy is purely or impurely a Yankee invention and experiment. We fear it will result in pure anarchy and agrarianism.

The conservative feeling pervades all classes in the South, and no doubt results from the institution of slavery; while it is the absence of that, or the destitution among the whites, which prompts to desperation, destructiveness, and love of change. Nowhere is this conservative feeling stronger than in the Rappahannock valley, for nowhere are people more easily situated and contented.

The whole South presents a bulwark against innovation and

revolution, that forms the sheet-anchor of our institutions, which the dissatisfied and restless North would soon overturn, if left to govern alone.

Long before Port Conway was established, there was a tobacco inspection there, called Gibson's warehouse, or *rolling house*. The places for deposit and inspection of tobacco along the rivers were at first called *rolling houses*, because there being few wagons in the colony, farmers were compelled to roll their hogsheds to market. We have heard old citizens of Port Royal say, they recollected when this mode of conveyance was still practised. In colonial times, tobacco was the staple product of Virginia. It was the only article of export, and tobacco-notes almost the only currency. Then the product of tobacco sometimes outstripped the demand for it, and many and stringent laws were enacted to arrest and prevent its cultivation. Now the demand for tobacco far exceeds the supply, and farmers are beginning to cultivate it again on the Rappahannock. It may again become our staple, for its use and consumption are so rapidly extending, that there is little danger of an over-supply. The quality of our tobacco will not be good, but we shall probably make up in the quantity produced per acre, for the deficiency in quality.

Our ancestors must have enjoyed much rude luxury, from the time of their first settlement. The waters of the Chesapeake and its tributaries swarmed with innumerable varieties of wild fowl, and abounded with delicious fish, oysters, soft crabs, and turtle; while the surrounding woods were full of game and wild fruits. With plenty of corn, wheat, and vegetables, they had at their doors the materials to furnish tables that might have tempted Lucullus. Nature provided so much for them, that they became slow and careless in supplying the wants and conveniences, which bountiful Nature had left unprovided. Sixty years after the arrival of the first colonists (1666), we find the following act passed by the House of Burgesses:

“AN ACT FOR WEAVERS AND LOOMES.

“Whereas, the present obstruction of trade, and the nakedness of the country, doe sufficiently evidence the necessity of providing supply of our wants by improveing all meanes of raising and promoteing manufactures amonge ourselves, and the Governour's honour haveing, by apparent demonstrations, manifested that our poverty and necessity proceed more from want of industry, than defect of ability, since that fine women or children, of twelve or thirteen yeares of age, may, with much ease, provide sufficient cloathing for thirty persons, they would betake themselves to spinning, which cannot

objected against, if weavers and loomes were once provided ; for the better effecting whereof, *Be it enacted by the authority of this GRAND ASSEMBLY*, that, within two years, at furthest, after the date of this act, the commissioners of each county court shall provide and sett up a loome and weaver, in each of the respective counties of this country, at the charge of the county ; and that no private person setting up a loome, at his own charge, shall excuse the county from setting up a public one. But that every court neglecting to perform the tenour of this act, shall be fined two thousand pounds of tobacco, to the use of the publique and informer. Providing that the executing hereof in the counties of Rappahannock, Stafford, Westmoreland, and Northumberland, who, by the newnesse of their ground, pretend themselves incapable of making provision for the so soone employment of a weaver, be respited for foure yeares after the date hereof."

Tide-water old fogysm retains its dogged, do-nothing spirit. It hates and opposes railroads, canals, daily mails, and other modern innovations, quite as cordially as its ancestry hated and opposed the looms. Governor Wise seems to have inherited the innovating spirit of Governor Berkley. Although born and reared in the midst of tide-water, he is the fast friend and most efficient advocate of modern improvements. No wonder the old fogies on tide-water should think him eccentric ; for he belongs to the go-ahead, modern world, while they are dreaming of times long past in sleepy hollows, on our eastern shores, or conning over the Resolutions of '98, '99, and the doctrines of nullification and secession, as panaceas for all the ills that human flesh is heir to.

Governor Wise's new school, and their old school, are admirably contrasted by W. M. Burwell, Esq., of Va., in the leading article of this *Review*, for January, 1859. He says :—
"The physical has dethroned the metaphysical system in the South. The remedies of material progress have superceded the mere assertion of abstract rights. Those rights will, hereafter, be asserted through the medium of the constitutional ability to enforce them."

We would not be misunderstood. We have no doubt whatever as to the right of nullification. But what is the mere abstract right worth, without the physical strength and ability to enforce it ?

Port Conway was established as a town, under a devise for that purpose, by Francis Conway, and by virtue of an Act of Legislature, passed between the years 1785 and 1790. It has never had a population of more than fifty persons. The river,

at this point, is twenty feet deep, within a few yards of the shore. At every few miles on the Rappahannock, on either side, there are admirable landings. Before, and even since the Revolution, there were stores at most of these landings, that carried on a direct trade with Europe, and purchased the corn, wheat, and tobacco, from the farmers. Before banks were established, the Scotch merchants, who generally owned these stores, acted as bankers, as well as merchants, for the farmers. They carried on a heavy business, and amassed fortunes rapidly.

The fine landings on this river now enable the farmers to dispense with neighborhood stores and villages altogether. The steamboats for Baltimore and Fredericksburg pass them four times a week, and it is more convenient to procure merchandise from those towns, than from stores a few miles off. Some of them have granaries on the river bank, with short troughs, or spouts, running into the hold of the vessel, in the river below. They generally send their crops to New York, Portland, and Boston, especially their Indian corn.

On the south side of the river, immediately opposite to Port Conway, stands the ancient and beautiful village of Port Royal. The river, at this point, is about six hundred yards wide, and presents as lovely a sheet of water as human eye ever rests on. It has the appearance of a lake, with its banks, and the hills in the distance, studded with gentlemen's spacious villas and ornamented grounds. The late John H. Bernard, a gentleman of taste and elegant classical learning, and who had twice made the tour of Europe, used to say, that it reminded him of Lake Geneva, and its surrounding villas. He thought the landscape about Port Royal, viewed either from the hills or the river bank, as beautiful as any he had ever seen. We have heard many traveled strangers express the same opinion. Port Royal has been called the village of flowers. In no other village are so many cultivated; and nowhere do they flourish better. The houses are of the old-fashioned cottage style, built a century ago, but surrounded with trees, flowers, ivy, and other evergreens; they harmonize admirably with the soft and luxurious repose that everywhere surrounds them. The width of the river-flats is here about three miles (including both sides of the river). The cultivated fields, of from two to three hundred acres, are in separate enclosures. Not an acre of barren or unproductive land is anywhere in sight, to mar the beauty of the scene. The hills, back of the village, present a waving, yet bold contour. They are more than one hundred and fifty feet high, and much resemble the South-west Mountains, when viewed from Barboursville, in Orange county, Va.

From the hills, the prospect extends thirty miles down the river; the view from the village, though more circumscribed, is not less lovely. The depth of water in the river, here, is thirty-four feet—deep enough to float the Great Leviathan, with cargo in. There are mud-bars, however, below us, with a depth of only fourteen feet. Officers of the Coast Survey, who lately surveyed the river, inform us that a steam-tug would readily bring up vessels of sixteen feet draft, so soft is the mud on the bars. Many ships formerly traded to this point. A British ship was here, since the war of 1812. Changes in naval architecture, not the filling up of the river, prevent ships from reaching us now. Vessels of equal tonnage draw more water than formerly.

Fredericksburg is twenty-two miles above us by land; by water, twenty-six. The river becomes narrow and tortuous as soon as it passes Port Royal. The town is laid out rectangularly, like Philadelphia. The ground on which it stands, and the surrounding fields for miles, are level and dry, and perfectly adapted for the site of a large city. The nearest point of the Richmond and Potomac Railroad is about fourteen miles distant, and the route an excellent one, both as to grade and soil. The distance by river to the Chesapeake Bay is not more than eighty or ninety miles. The population is between four and five hundred; and has been neither more nor less for a century—although the village was formerly much more wealthy than now, for it then carried on a very extensive European import and export trade. More than half the inhabitants are free negroes or slaves. In the valley generally the negroes, we think, outnumber the whites, as four or five to one.

Port Royal was established as a town by act of the House of Burgesses in 1744, on sixty acres of land, belonging to the devisees and children of Charles Smith, deceased, of Essex county. The trustees appointed to carry the act into effect were, "Charles Carter, William Beverly, Lunsford Lomax, Thomas Turner, John Baylor, Richard Taliaferro, and Oliver Towles, gentlemen." They were all wealthy farmers of the neighborhood, neither of whom ever lived in the village. Some years after, the act was amended, and some of the original trustees having died, Robert Gilchrist, Edward Dixon, and James Bowie, rich merchants of the village, were appointed to supply the vacancies.

The original settlers were generally Scotchmen. Their names, as we gather from tradition, were Roy, Miller, Bankhead, Lyban, Parker, Bowie, Gilchrist, Lucas, Dixon, Brandts, Dunlop, and Fox. Not one of the names except Parker re-

main in the village, although we have many of their descendants on the female side. A highly respectable connection, the Catletts, are the most numerous name in the village. Their ancestor was one of the first settlers of this neighborhood and he and his posterity owned lands extending from the present site of Port Royal several miles into the forest. They were much connected by marriage with the Madisons and Conways. Fredericksburg, like Port Royal, was settled in great part by Scotchmen. Their descendants are good citizens and many of them distinguished men.

We have now two churches, one Methodist, the other Episcopal. The Baptists, who are the most numerous sect on either side of the river, often preach in the Methodist church. After the Revolution there was no church here for thirty or forty years. The Methodists, the religious pioneers of the South used to preach in the open air or in private houses. They erected the first church. They stirred other sects into action. Now, our community, like the South generally, is a religious one. We cannot quit this subject without mentioning the Methodist Sunday school, which has been silently, but constantly at work in the village for forty years. All the children rich and poor, attend it, and early become imbued with a knowledge of the Bible, emulous of improvement, fond of reading, acquire much general information, and are trained into decent, orderly, respectful and graceful deportment. The father of a family ourselves, we have carefully observed, and now gratefully acknowledge its benign influence.

The spread of religion in the South has universally been succeeded by orderly, industrious and economical habits, and has been the first stimulant to improvement, and the first source of worldly prosperity. The general skepticism and infidelity that preceded it left men without guide, aim, or object in life. To "kill time" was the study and business of all and in *killing time*, they neglected the management of their affairs, and squandered their estates. The South is now the most prosperous and least skeptical country in the world.

Our daily mail (rather unpopular a few years ago, when it was first established) has now become both popular and useful for it furnishes the only means of getting out in the winter. Our neighbors in the lower Northern Neck stick to the Chinese and Japanese policy, and in a long freeze don't see a newspaper or get a letter for three or four weeks. They hate and oppose modern innovations; yet seem none the worse for it, for we know not a better, more prosperous, or intelligent people.

There were, formerly, a great many ferries over the Rappahannock; now but two from Fredericksburg to the Bay: one

between Port Royal and Port Conway, and one between Rappahannock and Richmond county. Population and wealth have quadrupled since ferries were numerous, and the amount of travel is twenty times as great as then. Men find it easier now to go by steamboats and railroads to Washington, Baltimore, and New-York, than to cross our ferries, with a cold, head wind. In olden times the Indians above prevented all intercourse and travel, except that across the rivers, which became great and frequent.

The many rivers of Eastern Virginia are, in some respects, absolute nuisances to the people living along and between them, and will so continue to be until this region is intersected by various branch railroads connecting it with the rest of the State. Nothing less can Virginianize us. We shall continue to be the "outside row," and the tributary province of Maryland, until this is done.

Port Royal is surrounded with beautiful and spacious country-seats, or gentlemen's villas. Opposite to it, just across the river, are Belgrove, the residence of Carolinus Turner, Walsingham, of George Turner, Woodlawn, of Richard Turner, and Millbank, of Augustine Fitzhugh. In sight, on a lofty hill, stands Canning, the fine new seat of Lieutenant Wm. T. Smith. Below us, on this side the river, in full view, are the spacious and improved grounds and elegant Italian cottage of Wm. Pratt, called Camden. Behind the town, on a beautiful and commanding hill, is Gaymont, belonging to Wm. R. Bernard.

Hazelwood, once the residence of Col. Jno. Taylor, deceased, who was distinguished as a lawyer, statesman, author, and farmer, is situated above us on the river. This fine old house, with its many surrounding improvements, is some miles from us, but the farm extends to within half a mile of the village. It now belongs to George Taylor, son of Col. Jno. Taylor, deceased.

This distinguished man did quite as much to improve our system of farming, by his example, as by his writings. Especially was this the case, in the treatment of his slaves. He built commodious brick dwellings for them, and accustomed them to plank floors, glass windows, and decent civilized habits of living. He, besides, furnished them more regularly and abundantly with food and clothing than was then usual. His negroes multiplied rapidly, became more honest and industrious, and his crops increased. His example has been followed throughout this valley. Brick and framed houses have superseded the log cabin. Negroes generally have larger allowance, and are much more honest than formerly. The crops of our

farmers have greatly increased under this new system of management. The negroes on Rappahannock are well treated and very lightly worked. Most of the farms might be cultivated with half or a third less force than that now employed.

Several farmers whose lands adjoin, or lie very near the village, have residences in town. Among them Mr. Philip Lightfoot, one of the oldest citizens, and a fine specimen of the "Gentlemen of the Old School." His father came to live here many years ago from Sandy Point, the very ancient seat of the family on James River. The Lightfoots were among the earliest and wealthiest settlers of the Colony. They are connected and related to most of the old and wealthy families in the James River section.

The names of families in town now, as they occur to us while writing, are Lightfoot, Carrick, Thornton, Gray, Catlett, Farinholt, Baudin, Poyton, French, Urquhart, Pearson, Pendleton, Atwell, Fitzhugh, Garrett, Gravatt, &c., &c. We have six or seven stores, four of which keep large assortments of goods. Merchandise for sale here is purchased chiefly in Baltimore; a small part of it in Philadelphia. It was formerly imported direct from Europe, and tobacco exported to pay for it. The merchants then did a heavy business, and made large fortunes. Merchants still do well here, but fashion requires of them heavy expenditures, so that it requires a long time to amass even an independence.

Our slaves and free negroes are honest, orderly, well dressed, well fed, and extremely lazy. Most families keep around them three times as many house servants as are necessary. But the washerwoman will not cook, the cook will not clean the floors, the chambermaid will not wait the table, the dining servants will not work the garden, so that we are obliged to keep a great many servants about us.

The negroes have their African church, in which the services are occasionally conducted by a sort of irregular, volunteer amateur, colored preacher, when the service has been known to end in a row; but their deportment in church is usually quiet and respectful.

The country about Port Royal was probably settled fifteen or more years before that on the opposite side of the river. That, we find, was first patented in 1667, by Chetwood and Prosser. Sir Thomas Lunsford, ancestor of the Hon. John Tayloe Lomax, patented Port Tobago, five miles below Port Royal, in 1650. Our friend, R. G. R. Catlett, Esq. of Port Royal, has shown us a deed, dated 23d January, 1666, from John Lampart to John Catlett, for three hundred acres of land on Golden Vale Creek, which falls into the Rappahannock at

mile above Port Royal. The land is described as adjoining the land formerly John Spearman's, now in the use and tenure of John Catlett. The other adjoining landholders are John Vrosses and Roger Richardson. (None of these names except Catlett, are about here now, or remembered by the oldest inhabitant.) From this deed, it appears the country just above Port Royal was densely settled before 1666. Bishop Meade, in his work, informs us that there was a fort at Port Royal, and that a member of the Catlett family was killed here by the Indians. These forts were erected to defend the population below against the incursions of the Indians, who had been gradually driven upward toward the mountains. So soon as a fort was erected, population would cluster about and below it. Hence the early settlement of this immediate vicinity. There was no fort on the north side of the river.

The first mention of this section which we have found in the acts of the House of Burgesses, concerns Roy's warehouse, which was situated on the river, about three hundred yards above Port Royal. This had been long in existence before Port Royal was established. The vestiges of the wharf that stood there are still to be seen. The warehouse itself was in existence forty years ago, with several other old houses around it. The materials of the last of them were removed about five years ago.

This article is probably already extended to a tedious length. We shall continue the subject at least to the mouth of the river. We may then, if we find it interests the readers of this *Review*, trace the history of the settlement on the Potomac, and throughout the Northern Neck to the head of that river, including a part of the great Shenandoah Valley.

Before concluding, we will cite a clause from an act passed in 1680, to show what terrible levelers our ancestors were. White emigrants were considered as mere "goods, wares and merchandise," to be sold publicly at places appointed by law. "And all goods, wares, English servants, negroes and other slaves, and merchandises whatsoever, that shall be imported into this colony from after the 29th day of September, which shall be in the year 1681, shall be landed and layd on shore, bought and solde at such appointed places aforesaid, and at noe other place whatsoever, under like penalty and forfeiture thereof."

If, Mr. Editor, you suspect the truthfulness of our description of this happy valley; if you think we have drawn our picture too much in "couleur de rose," come and see Port Royal, come late in April, or in May or June, when the crops are growing, the flowers blooming, the birds singing, and the placid lake-like river just rippling into smiles. You shall dress

herself in Geneva, with her lake and her villas before you, with no snow-capped Mont Blanc in the background to fill you with its blasts;—or in Naples, with no mendicant friar to vex you by day, and no Vesuvius “*eructans cum mitus*” to disturb your slumbers at night;—or in the vale of Ashmole, with all her beauty, all her flowers, and all her song, but with none of her superstitions.

ART. V.—THE COLORADO OF THE WEST.

Among the most important explorations conducted by the government of the United States during the past few years, is that of the river and valley of the Colorado, which open our possessions to the Gulf of California, and seem to promise an extension of commerce between the Pacific and portions of our country which are otherwise practically inaccessible.

The command of the exploration was intrusted to Lieut. J. C. Ives of the Topographical Engineers, and the manner in which it has been prosecuted must tend to elevate the already high reputation of that young and enterprising officer.

Lieut. Ives reached the Colorado in a government schooner from San Francisco, his party having reached the same point by the way of San Diego, and thence overland to Fort Yuma, about one hundred and sixty miles above the mouth of the Colorado.

A steamer being constructed of very light draught, Lieut. Ives ascended the Colorado five hundred miles to the mouth of the Virgin, where, finding navigation impracticable, he proceeded by land to examine the country through which the upper river and its tributaries flowed. This exploration terminated at Albuquerque, on the Rio Grande, after about nine hundred miles of travel.

The Colorado was explored at a season of unprecedented low water. Its mouth is in a flat expanse of mud and shoals, and islands are in course of constant formation or removal. For thirty miles navigation is rendered dangerous, periodically, by the strength and magnitude of the spring tides, which have a fall of from twenty-five to thirty feet. The sand bars interpose the principal obstruction to navigation, as high as Fort Yuma. The channel is circuitous and continually changing, and the average depth is eight feet, but with shoals of only two feet depth. It is impossible to determine accurately the channel, which changes often in a single night, and boats cannot reach Yuma without grounding very often. If the bottom were soft and loose, there are no

rocks, and the snags, though numerous, are seldom dangerous. The navigation is easiest in April, May and June. An enterprising company has during the last four years been enabled to carry the government stores with much regularity between the mouth of the river and the Fort.

For one hundred and eighty miles above Fort Yuma the navigation remains much the same, the river passing between chains of hills and mountains, but in the next hundred mile gravelly bars abound, and the stream presents at times the appearance of a rapid. Fifty miles beyond this the Black Canon is reached, after passing many swift rapids, having at times only two feet of water. Says Lieut. Ives ;

"Above the canon the river is wide and shallow, and assumes the character of a rapid for so long a distance as to render any attempts to carry boats to a higher point almost valueless ; and considering the difficulty, hazard, and expense that would be incurred, at the low stage of water, in taking steamboats through the canon, I am of opinion that its mouth should be considered the practical head of navigation. Up to this point the Colorado, notwithstanding the difficulties to be encountered, may be pronounced navigable. The experiment was attempted, as has been stated, at a time when the river had experienced an unprecedented fall. At most seasons of the year the navigation would be much easier and better, and a boat of suitable model and dimensions, and drawing, when loaded, but two feet would be able to ascend the Colorado to the mouth of the 'Black Canon' with as much regularity and certainty as the steamboats now upon the river ply between the head of the Gulf and Fort Yuma."

The cotton-wood, mezquite, and willow-wood, are found in sufficient quantities, as far as the Black Canon, and it is thought that a wagon road could readily be opened between this point, of forty miles in length, to connect with the emigrant road to Utah. The following description of the physical features of this new and almost unexplored region, is given by Mr. Ives :

"The navigable portion of the Colorado runs nearly north and south. Near the Gulf, the surface on either side is perfectly unbroken ; the view being limited toward the west by distant spurs from the mountains of Lower California, and toward the east by the great Sonora desert. Farther north, broad valleys alternate with wild and rugged ranges of mountains of volcanic origin, that cross the river in almost parallel north and south lines. The canons formed by the passage of the river through some of these mountain chains, are probably unequalled in beauty and grandeur by any similar formations. In the Black Canon, the deep and narrow current flows between massive walls of rock that rise sheer from the water for over a thousand feet, seeming almost to meet the dizzy height above. The tortuous course of the river, as it winds through these sombre depths, where the rays of the sun rarely penetrate, gives infinite variety to the majestic outlines of the overhanging masses, forming combinations whose colossal proportions and fantastic sublimity it would be impossible to figure or describe.

"Above the canon, in the vicinity of the mouth of the Virgin, is the most rugged and sterile region that I have ever beheld. Barren hills

rock, heaped together in chaotic disorder, and exhibiting on their broad surfaces no trace of vegetation, extend for miles in almost every direction. The volcanic upheavals, which have here their northern limit, appear to have experienced also their most violent action. Beyond, toward the north and east, the country is undisturbed, and a region is entered upon that presents totally new features and peculiarities.

"This is a vast table-land, hundreds of miles in breadth, extending eastward to the mountains of the Sierra Madre, and stretching far north into Utah. To the extreme limit of vision, immense plateaus rise, one above the other, in successive steps; the floors of the most elevated being from seven to eight thousand feet above the level of the sea. The Colorado and its tributaries, seeking the level of the low region to the southward, have, by ages of wear and abrasion, cut their way through this huge formation, making canons that are in some places more than a mile in depth. The mighty avenues of the main water-courses are the thoroughfares into which smaller but still giant chasms debouch, and these, in turn, have their own subordinate tributaries, forming a maze of yawning abysses, generally inaccessible, and whose intricacies it would be a hopeless task to attempt to unravel. Twice only, after long and difficult clambering down the sides of the precipices, and through walled approaches, that seemed to be leading into the bowels of the earth, were the banks of the streams below finally attained. One place was on the Colorado itself, and the other near the mouth of one of its larger tributaries. Except at the place of descent the canon of the river, as far as it could be seen, showed no place of practicable ingress or outlet, and the appearance of the torrent, foaming and surging along its confined bed, left little room for doubt as to what would be the result of any attempt, such as has been sometimes suggested, to explore the river in boats from its sources above.

"So numerous and so closely interlaced are the canons in some portions of this singular region, that they have displaced all but scattered remnants of the original plateau, leaving narrow walls, isolated ridges, and spires so slender that they seem to totter upon their bases, shooting up to an enormous height from the vaults below."

While to the westward of the Little Colorado, belts of cedar and pine are sometimes found, toward the eastward stretches an almost unbroken desert.

The Indians on the lower portions of the river are not very numerous, but are idle and inquisitive.

The region east of the Colorado, on the 35th and 36th parallel of latitude, is almost uninhabited, except by scattering bands of Indians, who are in a miserable condition, and struggle for the merest necessities of existence. The first large and influential tribe seen after leaving the Colorado, is the Moquis Indians, a description of whom will be found most interesting by our readers:

"The tribe is much smaller than has been sometimes stated. The number of the population has been supposed to be about seven thousand, but I consider one half of this an extravagant estimate. The towns are situated within a few miles of each other, and on the tops of isolated and precipitous hills. They are inclosed by walls of stone, and tolerably well constructed. The houses are built around an open court, and the only mode of entrance is by ladders that conduct to a small platform on the top of the exterior wall, upon which the doors and windows of the habitations open. Springs

near the summits of the hills, furnish a supply of water; and to provide against seasons of drought, there are large stone reservoirs, exceedingly well made, placed in the hollows along the faces of the bluffs. Some of the towns are approached by flights of stone steps, and the steep ascent laid out in neatly-arranged terraced gardens, the masonry of the revetment is kept in excellent order and preservation. Orchards of peach-tree bearing an indifferent quality of fruit, grow on the hill-sides. In the broad valleys below are fields of cotton, corn, pumpkins, and melons, whose cultivation, under great disadvantages of soil, climate, and agricultural outfit exhibits a degree of industry that, in an Indian, is truly remarkable. Both men and women labor in the field. They possess a considerable number of sheep—nearly all of a jet-black color—and some poultry. The women wear a long black gown, of their own weaving, and the men variegated blankets, also of home manufacture. They are a shambling, ill-made race with pleasant, though homely faces, and are perfectly peaceable and inoffensive. They seem to suffer but little molestation from warlike tribes which is due, less to their own prowess, than to the natural defences of the towns, whose commanding position and difficult approach afford security against both surprise and assault. The progress they have made in agriculture and manufactures helps to maintain their peaceful relations with Indians from all parts of New Mexico and from Utah having recourse to them for blankets, and in times of scarcity, for provisions."

In regard to the agricultural features of the whole region explored as far as the Rio Grande, Lieut. Ives does not speak in a very hopeful manner. The valley of the Mojave Indian in latitude 35°, he regards the most promising in the whole of New Mexico, west of the Rio Grande. The atmosphere in spring is balmy and delicious, and beautiful groves of trees were found, with fields of wheat, corn, beans, pumpkins, &c. The health, numbers and good condition of the inhabitants, speak well for the whole region. The great drawback, however, to white settlers would be its liability to inundation from the freshets which frequently occur. During several months of the year the heat of the sun is insupportable, and the varieties of temperature during the day are often extreme. The growing season is thus rendered exceedingly short, and a single accident to a crop would for that year be without remedy. It is also to be observed, generally, that on the river the Indian race do not multiply; but the records show *decline*, notwithstanding they have remained at peace, and not in contact with the whites.

"The remainder of the great area of territory examined, presents also many discouraging features. The northern portion is much the worst. Besides the deserts that have been alluded to, in the timbered region itself, are four broad tracts, where the vegetation has become extinct, and the white and weathered trunks are scattered, like monuments, over a vast cemetery of departed life. No indication of fire exists. The destruction has been gradual, and a deep impression is conveyed of some deadly rot slowly creeping over the surface of the country. Want of rain is undoubtedly the great cause of the decay. Near the abandoned ruins of several of the Moquis towns, no water was found. This people, though exposed to no contact with the whites,

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ally dwindled away, and their ultimate fate, if the same meteorological condition continues, can be a question of little doubt.

Along the 35th parallel, within the limit of the volcanic disturbances, of the country is better, and, at some seasons of the year, very attractive.

After the melting snows of spring, and during the autumnal rains, a smiling picture of green forest glades, sparkling streams, verdant hills, wild flowers, the eye could not desire to dwell upon; and excepting the surface of the soil is in most places closely packed with lava rocks, it would seem to be a promising field for the agriculturist. Evidence, however, has been collected of seasons of drought so excessive as to render doubtful whether more than a small portion of the country could ever be settled.

Over the whole of this region and that first alluded to, remains of buildings and fragments of pottery are found, and the fact has been adduced as argument to establish the present capability of the country to sustain a population; but there is an analogy between these mouldering ruins and the forests near by, suggestive of a different conclusion, giving rise to a question, whether the decay of one race of inhabitants might not have been induced by influences that would be effectual to prevent the introduction of another.

The mineral value of the Colorado and its tributaries is altogether a different matter. Traces of gold and mercury are everywhere, but of silver, copper, lead, and iron, in great quantities, are found everywhere; and the geologist, Dr. Norbery, brought home many specimens, which he was kind enough to show us at the Smithsonian Institution.

It is believed that by adopting the navigation of the Colorado, and carriage of from seven hundred to eleven hundred miles, it can be saved in supplying our forts and military stations, and that eventually this river will be used as a medium of communication with the greater portion of New-Mexico, East-California, and Utah.

The reader, by consulting the reports of Maj. Emory and those of the Pacific Railroad Survey, will find much additional matter upon New-Mexico, Arizona, &c.; but it remained for this report to fill up an important gap in our knowledge of all these regions, which he has admirably done in his report, and for which we offer him our thanks.

ART. VI.—PICTURES OF NORTHERN EUROPE.

The publication of Dr. Kane's *Arctic Explorations* has created an appetite for material of this kind, which is sought to be satisfied by Bayard Taylor, who has journeyed into the regions of Lapland and Finland, and issued a volume descriptive of the country and the people, which is now before us.

This gentleman has earned a reputation for being one of the most assiduous and adventurous travelers of this travel-mad age, and has pushed himself, with true Yankee curiosity and energy, alike to the borders of the arctic circle, amid the deserts

of Arabia, to the shores of China, Tartary and Japan, and wherever else society and civilization might be found, presenting other and contrasting aspects to those of his own country and of middle Europe. His descriptive powers are of the highest order, and barring a prolixity of detail and too frequent repetition of the same ideas, what he has written is, in general, interesting and instructive.

We have before us his volume of "Northern Travel." Having made the passage of the Baltic in safety, Mr. Taylor essays the regions of the Lapps and the Finns. Not fancying the *finkel* or common brandy of Sweden, a mixture resembling turpentine, train oil, and bad molasses, he finds a supporter of animal heat in liberal potations of milk. A temperature of 38° below zero realizes at once ideas of arctic travel, as we find from the book :

"By Odin, it was glorious! The smooth, firm road, crisp and pure as alabaster, over which our sleigh-runners talked with the rippling, musical murmur of summer brooks; the sparkling, breathless firmament; the gorgeous rosy flush of morning, slowly deepening until the orange disk of the sun cut the horizon; the golden blaze of the tops of the bronze firs; the glittering of the glassy birches: the long, dreary sweep of the landscape; the icy nectar of the perfect air; the tingling of the roused blood in every vein, all alert to guard the outposts of life against the besieging cold—it was superb! The natives themselves spoke of the cold as being unusually severe, and we congratulated ourselves all the more on our easy endurance of it.

One might hope to be spared the infliction of "bleeding Kansas" when following the sledge of a Lapland traveler; but in vain, for Mr. Taylor cannot resist the temptation to say, "I would like to take all the young men north of Sundsvall, put them into Kansas, tell them her history, and then let them act for themselves."—Waugh!

The following picture of icy scenery will afford relief to some traveler at the tropics parched with summer heats, though for our part we had rather burn than freeze :

"We now had uninterrupted forest scenery between the stations—and such scenery! It is almost impossible to paint the glory of those winter forests. Every tree, laden with the purest snow, resembles a Gothic fountain of bronze, covered with frozen spray, through which only suggestive glimpses of its delicate tracery can be obtained. From every rise we looked over thousands of such mimic fountains, shooting, low or high, from their pavements of ivory and alabaster. It was an enchanted wilderness—white, silent, gleaming, and filled with inexhaustible forms of beauty. To what shall I liken those glimpses under the boughs, into the depths of the forest, where the snow destroyed all perspective, and brought the remotest fairy nooks and coverts, too lovely and fragile to seem cold, into the glittering foreground? 'Wonderful!' 'glorious!' I could only exclaim, in breathless admiration. Once, by the roadside, we saw an Arctic ptarmigan, as white as the snow, with ruby eyes that sparkled like jewels as he moved slowly and silently along, not frightened in the least."

Mr. Taylor says and thinks a great deal about free labor and the free North, and all that sort of thing, and much admires the innocent and unsuspecting simplicity of the women whom he found, some of whom made the fires in his room and served him with coffee while in bed, or conducted his bathing operations. We confess, however, a preference for the greater diffidence and the modest restraints of the South, and cannot agree with Mr. Taylor that the fashions he adverts to are "modesty in its healthy and natural development." The following, which is given with minute detail, is what he regards to be modesty both in the male and the female actors, we suppose:

"The servant-girl came in after us, and Mr. W. quietly proceeded to undress, informing us that the girl was bathing-master, and would do the usual scrubbing and shampooing. This, it seems, is the general practice in Finland, and is but another example of the unembarrassed habits of the people in this part of the world. The poorer families go into their bathing-rooms together—father, mother, and children—and take turns in polishing each other's backs. It would have been ridiculous to have shown any hesitation under the circumstances—in fact, an indignity to the honest, simple-hearted, virtuous girl—and so we deliberately undressed also. When at last we stood, like our first parents in Paradise, 'naked and ashamed,' she handed us bunches of birch-twigs with the leaves on, the use of which was suggested by the leaf of sculpture. We mounted to the platform and lay down upon our backs, whereupon she increased the temperature by throwing water upon the hot stones, until the heat was rather oppressive, and we began to sweat profusely. She then took up a bunch of birch twigs which had been dipped in hot water, and switched us smartly from head to foot. When we had become thoroughly parboiled and lathered, we descended to the floor, seated ourselves upon the stools, and were scrubbed with soap as thoroughly as propriety permitted. She finished by pouring hot water over us, and then drying us with warm towels."

Kaulokeino is an important town of the Lapps. This people have an ethnological relationship to the Finns, and resemble the Esquimaux only in their rude, filthy manner of life. They are a race of northern gipsies, and although converted to Christianity and tolerably educated, are nevertheless very superstitious. Recently, temperance has prevailed among them, and, with their paganism, much of the romance of their country has departed. Mr. Taylor speaks of a spiritual-epidemic, which broke out among them, manifesting itself in the form of visions, trances and angelic possessions. Having determined upon retracing his steps, he remarks:

"I confess to a feeling of relief when we turned our faces southward, and commenced our return to daylight. We had at last seen the Polar night the day without a sunrise; we had driven our reindeer under the arches of the aurora borealis; we had learned enough of the Lapps to convince us that further acquaintance would be of little profit; and it now seemed time to attempt an escape from the limbo of Death into which we had ventured. Our faces had already begun to look pale and faded from three weeks alternate darkness and twilight, but the novelty of our life preserved

from any feeling of depression, and prevented any perceptible effect upon our bodily health, such as would assuredly have followed a protracted experience of the Arctic Winter. Every day now would bring us further over the steep northern shoulder of the Earth, and nearer to that great heart of life in the south, where her blood pulsates with eternal warmth. Already there was a perceptible increase of the sun's altitude, and at noon-day a thin upper slice of his disk was visible for about half an hour."

The Finns are in most respects an extraordinary people. They are more ardent than the Swedes, and very clannish, retaining traces of their Asiatic origin. Drunkenness is now very rare among them. They are honest and moral, and even chaste, notwithstanding the custom which exists of both sexes mingling in the bath in a state of nature, the women performing the duty of rubbing and drying in an accommodating spirit, for their male friends. There is an absence of legendary lore in Finland quite notable. In these icy latitudes the intellect is paralyzed, as it is under the equator, and the perfectibility of man is inconsistent with either. For the first time in more than a month our traveler is refreshed with a view of daylight :

"It was no longer the setting light of the level Arctic sun ; not the twilight gleams of shifting color, beautiful, but dim ; not the faded, mock daylight which sometimes glimmered for a half-hour at noon ; but the true white, full, golden day, which we had almost forgotten. Its effect upon the trees was superb. The twigs of the birch and the needles of the fir were coated with crystal, and sparkled like jets of jewels spouted up from the immaculate snow. The clumps of birches can be compared to nothing but frozen fountains—frozen in full action, with their showery sheaves of spray arrested before they fell. It was a wonderful, a fairy world we beheld—too beautiful to be lifeless, but every face we met reminded us the more that this was the chill beauty of Death—of dead Nature.

The following scale of the physical effects of cold in the latitudes of 65 to 70 degrees north, is prepared from the experiences of Mr. Taylor. His reckonings of extreme cold, however, may be regarded in some degree unreliable.

"15° above zero—Unpleasantly warm.

"Zero—Mild and agreeable.

"10° below zero—Pleasantly fresh and bracing.

"20° below zero—Sharp, but not severely cold. Keep your fingers and toes in motion, and rub your nose occasionally.

"30° below zero—Very cold ; take particular care of your nose and extremities ; eat the fattest food, and plenty of it.

"40° below—Intensely cold ; keep awake at all hazards, muffle up to the eyes, and test your circulation frequently, that it may not stop somewhere before you know it.

"50° below—A struggle for life."

The position of Stockholm is picturesque. It occupies three islands, and may claim the most extreme antiquity. Splendid

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of granite connect the suburbs with the city. The streets are narrow and badly paved, and in a wretched condition—the houses are models of solidity and stability, and of stone. The Swedish language is the most melodious of Northern languages, with the exception of the Finnish, which is music itself. Their prose is inferior to their poetry, and the popular songs and ballads are rich and numerous.

The Swedes are noted for their hospitality to strangers, but with an excess of formality. They are called by Voltaire the "men of the North," and Stockholm has the reputation of being the most licentious city in Europe. Very nearly all the births are illegitimate, and nine tenths of the shop-servant-girls are unchaste. The praters about North America, in our own country, as contrasted with that of Europe, would do well to notice this, and see if a rule cannot be made in America as in Europe. Drunkenness is a comparatively devastating vice in Stockholm.

I extract the following description of Copenhagen :

Copenhagen is by no means a commercial city—scarcely so as Stockholm—its streets are gay, brilliant and bustling, and full of life and joyousness which contrasts strikingly with the grave and sober character of the latter capital. From without, it makes very little impression, on a low, level ground, and surrounded by high earthen fortifications; its interior is full of quaint and attractive points. There is always an admixture of the German element in the population, softening the sternness and frankness the Scandinavian reserve. In their fondness for dancing and recreation, the Danes quite equal the Viennese, and their gardens of Tivoli is one of the largest and liveliest in all Europe. There is such a thing as individuality; in manners, somewhat eccentric. The Danish nature appears to be more pliant and flexible than the Swedish, but I cannot judge whether the charge of dissimulation, which I have heard brought against it, is justified. As to morals, Copenhagen is said to be an improvement upon

What is said of Christiana :

Copenhagen furnishes a remarkable example of the progress which Norway has made since its union with Sweden and the adoption of a free Constitution. In its signs of growth and improvement, the city reminds one of a new town. Its population has risen to 40,000, and though inferior to Hamburg in its commerce, it is only surpassed by Stockholm in the number of its old log-houses of which it once was built have almost entirely disappeared; the streets are broad, tolerably paved, and have—what Stockholm yet boast of—decent sidewalks. From the little nucleus of Copenhagen, near the water, branch off handsome new streets, where you suddenly find stately three-story blocks upon the rough rock of the island. The broad *Carl-Johansgade*, leading directly to the main front of the Royal Palace, upon an eminence in the rear of the city, is worthy of any European capital. On the old market square a new market hall of brick, in semi-Byzantine style, has recently been erected, and the only apparent point in which Christiana has not

kept up with the times, is the want of piers for her shipping. A railroad, about forty miles in length, is already in operation as far as Eidsvold, at the foot of the long Mjøsen Lake, on which steamers ply to Lillehammer, at its head, affording an outlet for the produce of the fertile Guldbrandsdal and the adjacent country. The Norwegian Constitution is in almost all respects as free as that of any American state, and it is cheering to see what material well-being and solid progress have followed its adoption."

But we have not space to follow Mr. Taylor through the many chapters of his book, which are filled with details that can have but little general interest, and seem to be included merely to swell out the number of pages. We regret that he has not furnished more information in regard to the institutions, policy and resources of all these interesting regions of the North, and less of the mere incidents of travel, which are but too often flat and unprofitable. It seems to be a waste of intellect for such an author thus to employ himself. The book, however, will repay perusal, if one may be permitted at pleasure to delve or skim.

ART. VII.—THE SUGAR CANE: ITS DISEASES, CHARACTERISTICS, &c.

A PAPER read before the New-York State Agricultural Society, by C. E. Goodrich, of Utica, New York, has been published in pamphlet form; a copy of which is furnished us by the author, "On the Diseases of the Grape, and the Sugar Cane." As he desires an expression of views upon the theories and facts propounded by him, from those experimentally qualified to speak, we have concluded to give to our readers the whole of what is said upon the subject of the Sugar Cane, in this and the next number of the *Review*.

Many years ago, at the inception of our editorial labors, we presented to the public a variety of able papers upon the subject of sugar, from the pens of Practical planters, manufacturers, chemists and merchants, many of which were reproduced in our work, entitled, "Industrial Resources of the South and West." It was said of these papers, by those most qualified to judge, that they gave an impetus to the sugar industry of the South, and aided its development to an extent which was truly remarkable. After a lapse of nearly ten years, there must be much new and valuable light to be shed upon the subject, and we cheerfully open our pages to its discussion; urging, however, upon our contributors brevity.

In regard to the peculiar views of Mr. Goodrich, we shall ourselves express no opinion. So far as he refers to the substitutes for sugar cane and the extension of the sugar product to the northward, our views have been presented often and fully. It is rather a theme for amusement than for grave discussion.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE SUGAR CANE.—The sugar cane belongs to the family of grasses, one which includes nearly one sixth of all the species in the vegetable world. Its botanical denomination is *Saccharum Officinarium*.

CLASSIFICATION.—1. In the artificial system of Linnæus it is found in the third class (*Triandria*), and second order (*Dyginia*). In the

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order it ranks with such useful plants as redtop, reed, grass, broom corn, orchard grass, wheat, rye, barley, and

the *natural system* of modern writers it is included under the *Gramineæ*, or grasses. This, in the system of Lindley, is the 10th order. It includes, besides the useful plants just mentioned, also the sedges, palms, bamboos and ferns of tropical regions.

Grasses.—1. This family is diffused as widely as vegetation. Its plants constitute, at the North, our pastures and hay and include nearly all our grain. At the South they include reeds, the strong bamboo, and the rich sugar cane. At the North they are hardy, while at the South they are

soft. Sugar is a general product of this family. The grasses of our meadows and hay are sweet. Sugar cane, Chinese sugar cane, and reeds, especially abound in sweetness. Reeds of tropical regions are often a rich source of grateful cooling drinks, drawn from tapping them below the joints.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE SUGAR CANE AND INDIAN CORN.—Both grow up jointed, with a leaf at each joint, but dropping the leaves in the progress of the summer.

The Indian corn head out with a flower stalk, when cultivated in natural places. The arrow or head of the Indian corn is jointed to its whole length—that of the sugar cane is without joints, and the young shoot where it emerges from the main plant.

On the same soil and climate both make, it is probable, about the same height, when headed out. This sometimes amounts to 15 feet in the tropics, while further north it is much less; with reeds at least, which, on the line of 43°, rarely exceeds eight

feet. The lower joints of Indian corn exhibit what may be called the shape of a small husk or sheath. These, at about the fourth joints, give rise to ears of grain, which number from 10 to 15 in ordinary soil and culture, while in more favorable country sometimes amount to three or four. The sugar cane has joints, in shape and position much like that of fruit trees. In the first year, they being nature's mode of preparation for the growth of the cane when planted as a prostrate cane in the soil, the second year.

The sugar cane being perennial, the roots survive the winter in the ground and vegetate the second year, yielding what, at the South, is called ratoon cane. In the tropics we may suppose they do this annually, but in the Southern States it is needful to cover the ground to guard them from frost. This *ratoon* cane is much less vigorous in the imperfect climate of Southern States, than that grown from cuttings, which is called *plant* cane.

The sugar cane has *perfect* flowers, that is, with the stamens in the same flower, like broom corn and the most of composites. This flower surmounts the plant in a spiked panicle.

The Indian corn has a *monœcious* flower, that is, one with its staminate organs on the tassel of the plant, while its pistillate organs or silk are in the husk or embryo ear.

7. The bark or cortex of the sugar cane, and its pith, are much harder than the corresponding portions of the Indian corn, its elaborations being retained in the stalk, while those of the Indian corn flow out and form the ear.

8. Both vary in color of bark, from a light green to a dark purple. The color in both is mainly determined by kind, but is modified by culture also, a rich impulsive culture darkening the color of both, irrespective of sort.

The foregoing comparative view is imperfect, but sufficient for my purpose, where disease and climatic relations are the main objects of investigation.

CAUSES OF DISEASE.

1. SOIL.—*a. As chemically considered.*—Concurrent testimony shows that the analogies of this plant are very close with Indian corn, in structure, both internal and external, deposition of saccharine matter, and climatic requirements. The main difference is, that it requires a higher temperature and a longer season for maturity than the latter. From the Transactions of the New-York State Agricultural Society, of 1848, I take the following tables relative to the mineral elements of Indian corn, page 819. The fodder and the grain, after the former is dry enough to stack and the latter to crib, contain not far from 15 per cent. of water and 85 per cent. of dry matter. After subtracting the water, every 100 lbs. of the dry matter contain about from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of ash, and each ton contains from 90 to 110 lbs. of inorganic matter. The following table represents approximately the proportion of the several bodies in 100 lbs. of ash, which is about the ordinary amount removed by a ton :

Silicic acid, ...	41.269
Phosphoric acid, ...	7.903
Phosphate of iron, lime and magnesia, ...	9.256
Potash, ...	12.709
Soda, ...	12.379
Lime, ...	3.075
Magnesia, ...	3.597
Chlorine, ...	3.855
Sulphuric acid, ...	5.959
	100.000

The same experimenter found, in the analysis of numerous varieties of corn, page 820, that in a plat giving 105.68 lbs. of ash, the result was distributed among the several parts of the plant as follows :

Grain, ...	8.15
Cob, ...	2.54
Husks, ...	9.86
Leaves and sheaths, ...	45.80
Stalks and tassels, ...	

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ing an acre of corn about six tons, there will be removed by each crop about 600 lbs. of inorganic matter. In a comparison of the exhausting influence of a crop of sugar cane and Indian corn, respectively, a deduction should be made in favor of the sugar cane, all that proportion of the ash which enters into the grain of the Indian corn, since the sugar cane in Louisiana bears

If the remaining stalk and leaves of the corn give an ash amounting very nearly with that of the sugar cane, the result is that the latter would be considerably less exhausting to the soil than the former ; and such, I understand, is considered to be the opinion of the cultivators of the cane. When it is considered, moreover, that phosphoric acids, magnesia, potash, and soda, enter very largely into the ash of the grain of Indian corn, the difference is in favor of the sugar cane. Silicic and phosphoric acid are probably about equally found in each, and in both more largely in common vegetables and hardwood trees. The soil of Louisiana being principally the result of deposit from the Mississippi, may be supposed to abound largely in all the inorganic elements needful for the growth of the sugar cane. Silica, being more readily deposited in water than other matters, would be found most abundant on the banks of the river. Those plantations that are farthest from the river might probably fail soonest, from a deficiency of silica in the soil, as some writers have suggested.* But a more important question remains to be stated. Sugar is constituted entirely of organic matter, and is represented by carbon and water. Hence, in a well-conducted system of cane culture, the return of the matter of the cane to the field will preclude any waste of the important elements of the soil ; I mean those which are mineral. Whatever may be the fact in regard to the exhaustion of the soil in Louisiana, whether by culture or otherwise, I do not look to that cause primarily for the origin of diseased cane. A diminished supply of silica, or any other element, organic or inorganic, in a soil where Indian corn is cultivated, does not so much in the diseased as in the dwarfed condition of the crop ; and the same is true of other gramineous crops, as wheat and grasses. In the Northern States we find, if I mistake not, that Indian corn and the cereals generally, when raised on soil that have been impoverished by long culture, but that are not so impoverished as to be inappropriate, are diminished in quantity rather than in quality. Indeed, if sugar cane were liable to disease from this cause, we should look to see Indian corn diseased also in the same localities, since its demand on the soil for mineral elements is greater probably than the sugar cane, by all that portion that forms the cob and the kernel of the corn. The superior fertility of the corn would also be a reason of its greater exhaustion of the soil, it being well known that the removal of an immature

Dr. Schimper, having no practical experience in the sugar culture, relies here, as in other parts of his paper, upon the Reports of the Patent Office—particularly upon that which was made by Mr. Fleischmann, whom we aided during his visit to New Orleans.

crop from the soil results in less exhaustion than a mature one. I would not deny that deficient elements in the soil may sometimes be the occasion of disease in vegetation, yet, for the reasons already stated, and others yet to be mentioned, I think it not the principal cause of disease in the sugar cane.

b. Soil as mechanically constituted.—We are told that in Louisiana the sand diminishes in the soil as you recede from the river, the change being gradually made to a clay mixed with vegetable deposit; and that this soil, when properly drained, is very rich and well adapted to the growth of cane and most other crops. We may hence infer, that almost any interval land, holding a due medium between dry, coarse sand and gravel on the one hand and wet clay on the other, will, in an appropriate climate, produce good sugar cane. These limitations are much like those of Indian corn, except that the latter will grow well in the coarsest and dryest land, provided it find there the needed mineral elements; it being in this respect, one of the coarsest feeders we cultivate. In this it has much the advantage of the sugar cane, the canes of which, when planted in the furrow, need fine earth, well elaborated over their whole length, to encourage germination, while a very small portion of fine soil, immediately around the kernel of the Indian corn, is sufficient. The great evil I apprehend, in the condition of the soil in the culture of cane is dampness; the extreme of moisture, in a cool season, chilling the whole plant, and in a hot one provoking too rapid a growth, and thus making the plant too vascular, and leaving it, at the close of the season, immature. The general fact, however, that in some seasons the disease of the sugar cane is found on most soils, however chemically and mechanically constituted, and that, in other seasons, nearly all soils are exempt, seems to me, to exonerate the soil from at least a leading agency in its production, and to lead us forward to the investigation of some of the other conditions of vegetable growth in which mainly to find it.

2. CLIMATE, AS AFFECTING THE HEALTH OF THE SUGAR CANE.—

By a recurrence to the general principles (heretofore stated in specific requirements of plants), the specific climatic requirements of tropical plants will be seen. The climate of Louisiana, though doubtless exhibiting a degree of heat adequate to the moderate prosperity of the sugar cane, fails in some important qualities. The sugar cane is a thoroughly tropical plant, produced on islands and maritime coasts, where it finds a climate very different from that of Louisiana.

a. The climate of Louisiana and the adjoining sugar-growing States is *too cool* for the highest perfection of its culture. Hence,

(1.) The cane, at least those varieties now cultivated, does not fully develop itself; and, as a consequence, its elaboration of saccharine matter is not perfect, the sugar often crystallizing with difficulty. The cane now cultivated in Louisiana was imported (see *Transactions of the Patent Office*, 1848, p. 281, and 1855, p. 273, &c.) from the island of Java, Bourbon, Mauritius and Tahiti, and the districts of Malabar and Bengal in India. It is obvious how different are al

these climates from that of Louisiana. Java lies between 6° and 9° south lat.; Bourbon and Mauritius between 20° and 21° south lat., and Tahiti, 18° south lat. The coast of Malabar and Bengal, in India, lies between 10° and 27° north lat., but from what points within these limits the sugar cane was brought does not appear. The fixed character of plants (not susceptible of acclimation) forbids the idea that one cultivated as a perennial, as is the cane, and brought from climates such as are presented by these islands and maritime coasts, should ever conform itself to such a climate as that of Louisiana, situated for the most part between 29° and 33° north lat. Cane, in its native region, is said to be filled with crystallizable matter to the very extremity of the plant. That of Louisiana is confessedly much less rich, the upper part of the plant being unfit to grind for sugar.

(2.) The sugar cane, in its native region, bears seed. I am aware that this point is practically disputed. What may be the effect of culture on the seed-producing powers of the cane, I will not now stop to ask, further than to hint, that as in the case of the peony, pink, some varieties of the balsamine, snow-ball, flowering almond, &c., where the power of culture so distorts the flower, and the habits of the plant, that it never or rarely produces seed, so it may be with the sugar cane in its circumstances of culture. It were an anomaly, however, in the constitution of material things, to assert that the sugar cane, at least in its truly native condition of growth, does not bear seed—such seed as is capable of germination. There are many tropical plants, which are perennial or not, according to the climate where they are cultivated, and which may be propagated with facility by seed, cuttings, tubers, &c. Thus, the Lima bean is a seedling annually here, but is perennial in Liberia. The scarlet-running bean is usually cultivated as a seedling, yet, even here, its roots are capable of surviving the winter and growing the second year. Dahlias are raised readily from seed, cuttings, or tubers. Peppers are biennial, and perhaps more at Bogota. Nasturtium are perennial in Peru. So are squashes in the Sandwich Islands. The potato is readily grown from seed to its full size the first year or it may be readily propagated by cuttings, though usually reproduced by tubers. In the cane-growing States, the cane not only does not bear seed, but does not even head or “tassel out,” as we say of corn. It is cut for grinding for sugar at that stage of its growth at which Indian corn is often cut for summer fodder, when pastures are short, i. e., just before it throws out its top, which is when it is about half grown. Who would call corn ripe at that stage, however vigorously it had grown?

According to statements, cane that is six or eight feet high throws out a top or arrow of from five to seven feet more in height. This corresponds very nearly to the habits of Indian corn. At the North the yellow corn, in good soils and seasons, seldom exceeds eight feet in height, and is often below it. Of this the part above the ear is considerably more than half. On the contrary, the Southern good seed corn I found in central Ohio, in 1842, stood thirteen feet high.

but was told that it attained, in good years, sixteen feet in the same soil. In this case the ear is above the middle of the stalk, thus making the top less than one half its whole length.

I am aware that it is asserted that the cane arrows or tops sparingly even in the West Indies. But this may be owing to some want of wise culture, rather than to a natural habit of the plant. Sugar cane in Liberia attains the height of fifteen feet, with a diameter of two or three inches. Its growth there is larger than in Barbadoes. (See Dr. J. W. Lugenbeel's *Sketch of Liberia*, p. 24.) The Doctor does not state whether it tops out or not, but at the height of fifteen feet we hardly need ask the question. Neither does he state whether it bears seed.

Indian corn, when planted at midsummer, often matures its ears sufficiently for boiling before frost; but in the event of a cold autumn, as in the case of 1856, it does not even head out. Suckers about the base of the plant, even in good seasons, do not head out, though often bearing an imperfect ear at the top of the plant where the tassel might have been expected. In very prosperous years of corn culture, we often find a small irregular ear of well-ripened grain on the very apex of the tassel, although the Indian corn is a diœcious plant, having its staminate organs at the top.

These, and such like facts, in the culture of corn, go strongly to suggest, analogically at least, that in its appropriate climate, and by proper culture, the sugar cane ought to bear seed freely.

The failure of tropical plants to mature so as to exhibit seed, or other appropriate secretions, in a northern climate, is a matter of common experience. In 1851, I planted a convolvulus, imported from Madeira. It was forwarded in a hot bed, and grew with great vigor and health, but never developed a single flower. Humboldt hints somewhere, I think, that wheat, on the Mexican Andes, refuses to head. So the potato, imported from Valparaiso, never formed a tuber. Indeed, it is a frequent fact in agriculture, that many plants, even in their appropriate climates, fail to ripen seed or fruit, when excessively or otherwise unwisely cultivated. I cannot, therefore, consider the constant failure of the sugar cane to top out and bear seed, in the Southern States, in any other light than that of a proof of its permanent immaturity in the region where it is thus cultivated. That it now begins to fail, after so long a period of tolerably successful culture, is a proof, then, not of its essential feebleness as a species of plant, but rather of naturally great vigor of constitution.

(3.) The disease of the sugar cane is attended with just those marks that indicate that the climate is especially at fault.

First.—The cane, in such cases, is enlarged and discolored, and its juices corrupted. No one, who has cultivated melons, cucumbers, tomatoes, summer squashes, and even, occasionally, sweet corn, on a large scale for market, during years of severe climatic mid-summer changes, as in 1846, or in permanently cold summers, as in 1848, will be a stranger to closely corresponding indications of morbid condition. Cold, wet autumns also produce similar results on sweet corn that had been intended for late market.

In these cases, melons of all sorts were decayed on the lower side, or exhibited dark hearts. Cucumbers and summer squashes had various spots on the outside. Tomatoes were covered with brown and black indurations. Sweet corn, in the latter part of the summer, grew and rotted in the husk, even when planted widely apart, with access of air and light.

Second.—The sugar cane exhibited mildew about the joints. This is often seen on Indian corn when having been cut up, the autumn is unfavorable for curing it.

Third.—A gummy or waxy exudation is seen about the joints of the sugar cane. When this is considerable in quantity, the produce of sugar is small. So similarly, in morbid years, cucumbers and summer squashes, at mid-summer, and winter squashes when gathered in the autumn, often exhibit gummy concretions over their surfaces. Watermelon and muskmelon vines, when injured in early or mid-summer by a severe chill, show a black gummy matter standing in drops a few inches from the extremities of such vines as had grown most thriftily. In all these cases such excretions were very offensive to the smell. They all, as also those of the cane, are instances of juices diverted from the proper circulation while the plant is in a morbid state, like a vegetable erysipelas. In the case of the sugar cane the rationale of its appearance perhaps is this. Both the sugar cane and Indian corn are constituted with a determination of juices to the bud, in the one case to expand the bud the second year, and in the other to form the ear of the present year. The sugar cane, perhaps, needs a portion of this gum to protect the joint and the bud from the severities of the coming winter, but in the case of a morbid season the deposition on the surface is unduly large, thus robbing the plant of a portion of that matter which should have been deposited in the form of sugar in the vessels of the plant. Its appearance on the surface is a proof of morbid action, showing a want of vitality in the plant.

Fourth.—The season of grinding the sugar cane often comes at a period when the secretions of the plant are too immature or diseased to granulate, and are fit only for molasses. This fact is parallel with the occasional condition of some fruits, when, in consequence of cold, wet summers, the fruit in autumn exhibits not secretions of sugar, but of starch and acids. (See Silliman's *Chemistry*, edition of 1850, section No. 783.)

Fifth.—What strengthens these impressions of the inappropriateness of the climate of Louisiana for the most successful culture of the sugar cane, is the fact that its sugars are found much less fitted for the purpose of the refiner than the sugars made in the tropical regions. The sugar in the former case appears as though made of juices imperfectly matured, at the very point of fermentation.

The explanation of this is most obvious. Sugar cane, besides the elements of sugar, which are themselves fermentable when in an imperfect state of elaboration, contains a considerable quantity of gluten. (See Johnstone's *Chemistry of Common Life*, vol. i. p. 6, edition of New-York, 1855.) In the imperfect health of the

plant these glutinous substances run quickly into a state of putrefactive fermentation. Even when the cane is healthful they jeopard the safety of the expressed juice, unless speedily boiled. So similarly, in the spring of the year, the last drawn sap of the sugar-maple is incapable of granulation into sugar, and is fit only for molasses.

Sixth.—I have often noticed that imported tropical plants grow with marked vigor the first year, and then gradually decline, as if the period of their maturity were inconsistent with the length of our seasons. In such cases, the plant runs through the period of its declension in from two to five years. (See the illustration in the case of the potato previously recorded.)

The success with which Indian corn, a plant closely related to the sugar cane, is cultivated, should not be cited against the position that the sugar-growing region of the United States of America is too cold for its most profitable culture: for, *first*, Indian corn is adapted to a less degree of heat than the sugar cane. *Second*, even it is injured temporarily by a cold season. *Third*, it is always cultivated as a seedling, and so gradually accommodates itself to the length of the season where it is permanently cultivated. Thus grown, moreover, it retrieves the injuries of one year by the healthier growth of the next; while in the cases of such perennials as the sugar cane, grape, and potato, the evil accumulates from year to year.

There is no more reason why a perennial plant, suffering climatic injuries from year to year, should recover from them perfectly, than that animals should perfectly surmount the effects of repeated attacks of disease, or the effects of constant climatic pressure. The assertion of the contrary doctrine would be that of a virtual immortality (accidents apart) of both plants and animals. Indeed, how often do we see a plant sink, in one season, under repeated attacks of hard chills, heavy rains, and light frosts?

a. The climate of the sugar-growing States is too irregular for the best health of the sugar cane.

1. Such fitfulness is the striking characteristic of the climate of a large portion of the United States of America. The rationale of its influence on tender plants, was previously described, in treating of the grape. There is this difference, however, between the grape and the sugar cane. The former suffers almost equally from hot damps and cold chills, while the latter, in common with most tropics, suffers almost exclusively from the latter. (See the illustration of inconstant weather on the cucumber, melon, squash, egg-plant, potato, pumpkin, pepper, beans, corn, tomatoes, &c., in the *Transactions of the New-York State Agricultural Society*, for 1847, p. 442-444; and 1848, p. 412-414).

2. The theory of acclimation, often introduced at this point of the discussion, is one of the imagination only, and is never verified by facts. Perennial tropical plants, cultivated in an uncongenial climate (one rendered so by shortness of season and irregularity of impulse), never gain a substantial adaptation to that climate.

(To be continued.)

ART. VIII.—THE HISTORY OF PARTY, AND THE POLITICAL STATUS OF JOHN TYLER.

[We beg to direct special attention to the article we publish below, on the subject of the "History of Party, and the Political Status of John Tyler as President." It is from the pen of a gentleman who has often enriched the pages of this *Review* with articles which have elicited the highest encomiums from all quarters for their clearness, force, and masterly ability. The present article which is but the beginning of a series, is, in our opinion, eminently worthy of careful consideration, and will, we doubt not, make a deep and lasting impression upon the public mind. We deem it due alike to ourselves, to the public and to the author, to give this expression of our appreciation of its value.]

SIR: You have wished to know why President Tyler shaped his administration more in accordance with the avowed principles of the Democratic party than with those of the Whig party, and favored the restoration of the former to power rather than the continuation of the latter in possession of the Government. I proceed to answer you in the light of party and political history, and some of the illustrative facts and incidents of the hour.

To understand Mr. Tyler's personal and political status as President, we must look to his personal and political antecedents, associated with party; and to comprehend these rightly, we must glance over the history of party.

Under the Constitution and our present form of Government, parties were not organized until the presidential contest between the elder Adams and Mr. Jefferson. It cannot be said that party, in any broad and general sense, existed prior to this contest. True, during the Revolution and under the old confederation, the royalists or king's partisans were styled "*Tories*," and the rebels or patriots were called "*Whigs*." But the days of the Revolution and the old confederation had now been numbered; the distinction between royalist and rebel had ceased to be known; a new government had been ordained, and Whig and Tory joined voices, for eight years, in assigning to Washington the task of adjusting its machinery. The people, metamorphosed *first*, in their primary or individual character, from *subjects* to *citizens*; from being passive or subdued instruments of government, into active elements or generating principles, out of, through and by whom, government emanates and proceeds; and *next*, in their secondary or reflected character, from *dependent Colonies* to *independent States*; from being communities *bound* to central authority *into self-sustaining* powers to whom central authority *owes allegiance*; all alike rejoicing in these newly-found and

dearly-bought liberties, sought, without division or dissension, to incarnate them through the Constitution in Washington.

But parties, either as organized methods of personal ambition or exponents of public policy, will arise. As methods simply of personal ambition they subordinate patriotism to selfishness, but as high exponents of public policy they subordinate selfishness to patriotism. By their operation the State, in the one case, is reduced to the necessity of choosing between men and of looking through men to measures; in the other case the choice is as to measures, and through measures men are alone regarded. In the first division of parties, the leaders, on both sides, fresh from the struggle of the Revolution, were operated upon by considerations of public policy; and though widely separated in their views and principles, and furiously antagonistic, were, nevertheless, severely conscientious. This division originated in questions of constitutional construction, arising practically in the progress of the Government, through which the powers of the general agent or central authority might be enlarged or restricted. The one side, deeply impressed with the disastrous civil administration of the old confederation, consequent on the want of unity and strength in the central head by reason of the limitations imposed upon it by the States, and fearing similar results from similar causes in the new government, declared in favor of so construing and applying the executive, legislative, and judicial functions of the Constitution, through an enlarged interpretation of its letter, as to assure resisting and subduing power over State antagonism, and hence were termed latitudinarians, or "*Federalists*." The other side, remembering the exactions and tyrannies of Great Britain, and, therefore, regarding oppression from central authority more seriously than State antagonism, declared in favor of restricting the functions of the general agent to the plain word of the Constitution, reserving to the States all powers not so expressly granted, and were termed strict constructionists, or "*State Rights Republicans*." Adams the elder and Hamilton were chief leaders of the first, as Jefferson and Madison were of the last. The first general battle, on the broad arena of the confederacy, between these contending hosts, thus marshaled and chieftained, and struggling for future mastery in the administration of affairs, was fought in the year 1800, and terminated in elevating Mr. Jefferson to the Presidency. Again was the contest renewed, but with a similar result, in 1804; and again in 1808 and 1812 respectively, elevating, each time, Mr. Madison to the Presidency; and again in 1816, elevating Mr. Monroe to the Presidency. But by the year 1820, when M

Monroe was re-elected without opposition, after five general engagements in the face of the whole country, and a continuous partisan warfare on matters of interpretation and construction daily arising in the councils of government, conducted with the courage, persistency and determination of policy which, though erroneous, was heightened and dignified by conviction, the Federal party, *as such*, defeated at all points, disintegrated for the want of measures as a basis of operation, and unresistingly suffered the course to be occupied by the State Rights party. The peace that now followed for nearly four years, proved as disastrous to the triumphant party as defeat to their adversaries. For the want of a strong and defiant antagonism, the State Rights Republicans lost their political energies, became enervated like the Carthaginians at Cupua, after the victories of Ticinus, Trebia, Thrasymene and Cannæ, and passed into a state of fatal repose, soon ending in disorganization and disintegration also.

The mission of these two parties having thus passed away, out of their integral elements arose new formations. Between 1820 and 1824 the great bulk of the old Federal force, with here and there a scattered company of former State Rights men, among whom was Mr. Clay, met under the banners of Adams the younger and Clay, on the basis of that grand scheme of rich, powerful, centralizing and controlling monopoly, to be engendered through a National Bank with its affiliated branches, through a protective tariff, through a general system of internal improvements, through a distribution of the proceeds of the public lands, and through an immense funded debt, ordinarily styled the measures of the '*American System*,' which, if not separately conceived by the genius, were at least brought together, united, and formed into a bold and distinctive policy, through the brilliant intellect of Mr. Clay, and were propagated by him with masterly force, activity, courage, and eloquence; and seeking for the new party, thus formed and arrayed, a nomenclature which would attract the recent popularity of the Republican idea, while indicating to Federalism the idea of latitudinarianism, assumed for themselves the name and style of "National Republicans." On the other hand, the main body of the State Rights Republicans, with here and there an isolated fragment of Federalism, as, for instance, Van Buren, Livingston, McKinley, and many others, living and dead, whose names will readily occur to the reader, looking to the policy of success before the country rather than to a distinctively traced line of principle and statesmanship, such as had theretofore characterized the followers of Mr. Jefferson, combined and formed under the ban-

ners of Jackson and Calhoun, and, courting the masses for strength under their numerical increase and consequent augmentation of political power wrought through the practical tendencies of the government, as Marius and Cæsar did at Rome, assumed for themselves as a party designation the name and style of "*Democrats*." But not all the old Jeffersonians became amalgamated with either or both of these parties. A considerable number stood aloof for honor as to principle, and for self-respect as to consistency, and arrayed themselves under the standard of William H. Crawford. The triangular contest for supremacy, between these rivals, came off before the country in the fall of 1824, without victory declaring positively for either. Calhoun was elected Vice-President by the people, but the final decision as to President, through the failure of an election by the people, had to be rendered by the House of Representatives, as provided for by the Constitution. In the House, through the exertions of Mr. Clay, the National Republicans triumphed, and on the 4th of March, 1825, the new administration was organized with Adams as President, and Clay as Secretary of State. This administration, through its measures, soon lost favor with the country, and proved particularly obnoxious to those Republicans who, in 1824, had stood strictly on principle, sustaining Crawford, beneath the flag of Strict Construction and State Rights. When, therefore, the contest was renewed in 1828, between the Adams and Clay party, or National Republicans, on the one side, and the Jackson and Calhoun party, or Democrats, on the other side, sooner than risk the failure of an election by the people, and incur the chance of the re-election of Mr. Adams by the House, the former adherents of Mr. Crawford, among whom was John Tyler—who had already served in the Virginia Legislature five sessions sustaining the administration of Mr. Madison, five sessions in Congress sustaining the administration of Mr. Monroe, twice as Governor of Virginia, having been elected and *unanimously* re-elected to that high office on the "platform" of Crawford and State Rights, was at the time a Senator of the United States, and whose father, bearing the same name, and from whom his earlier political antecedents were derived, had been the intimately-attached personal and political friend of Jefferson and Henry, both as a patriot of the Revolution and a Republican under the Constitution of the purest and noblest stamp—all, to a man, as a choice at least to be preferred under the circumstances, threw themselves in coalition with the Democrats, and thus wrought the triumph of the Democratic party through

the election of Jackson as President and the re-election of Calhoun as Vice-President.

The first four years of President Jackson's administration having satisfied the country, and that select band of State Rights Republicans which, it is evident, held the balance of power both in 1824 and 1828, they again, with Mr. Tyler among them, co-operated with the Democrats in the re-election of Jackson in 1832, over the National Republicans led on this occasion by Mr. Clay in person. But, in the meanwhile, Mr. Van Buren had supplanted Mr. Calhoun, not only in the affections of President Jackson, but also in the Vice-Presidential office. And now the joint influence of Mr. Van Buren as Vice-President, and of Mr. Livingston as Secretary of State, over the mind of President Jackson and upon his administration, became as baneful as that we are told was exercised by Villiers over James the First, or that of Clarendon over James the Second of England, and was attended with momentous consequences to principle, to policy, and to party. This will not excite surprise, however, when it is remembered that both of these distinguished gentlemen entered the Democratic ranks from the Federal fold. Now became enacted, not only the highest protective tariff bill that ever emanated from the government, a bill indeed so monstrous in its provisions as to be styled in the history of the day the "*Bill of Abominations*," but the President, in the plenitude of his power and reasserted popularity, fulminated against South Carolina, for daring to question its constitutionality, his celebrated "*Proclamation*," threatening that State with military violence. Nor was this all. In support of the Proclamation, an obedient Congress, by an almost unanimous vote, passed into a law the "*Force Bill*," as it was ordinarily designated, constituting the President, *quo ad hoc*, a military dictator. The leaders of the National Republicans, Clay, Webster, and others, united with those of the Democrats, though in all other respects disunited, in controlling the voices of their respective parties, in and out of Congress, in favor of the Bill of Abominations, the Proclamation, and the Force Bill. Nor does this fact produce astonishment when it is seen that each of those measures was latitudinous in the extreme, and, in point of principle and policy, up to the highest mark of Federalism. The Force Bill was sustained with such unanimity, that, in the Senate chamber, the South Carolina Senators having retired, but a single voice was raised against it, and but a single vote was recorded in the negative. That voice and that vote were the voice and vote of John Tyler. He, there—like Carnot in the French assembly, upon the question creating the Empire with Napo-

leon as Emperor—notwithstanding the terrible array against him of friends and foes combined, threatening him with defeat in his approaching re-election as Senator, just ten days off, and with political death thereafter, stood undaunted and incorrupt, denouncing the measure in its principles as equally tyrannical and subversive of the Constitution, and majestically voted alone in the negative. At this moment President Jackson was surrounded with a popularity rarely accorded to any man. His striking personal characteristics of high courage, unquestionable patriotism in sentiment, unflinching bearing in the cause he believed right, and lofty honesty of purpose, however erroneous he might be, combined with his brilliant military successes against the Indians of the frontiers and the British forces at New-Orleans, together with his recent desperate yet successful civil conflict with the United States Bank monopolists, had attached to him the masses of the people, both native and naturalized, and his strong will had become the substitute for just law. But Mr. Tyler, with equal firmness, honesty, and patriotism, and with higher, better-educated, and truer ideas of government and statesmanship, at the hazard of his fortunes, and although he had twice assisted in placing that remarkable man in the Presidential office, and without favoring the doctrine of nullification, braved his wrath and his power, and opposed his will, sooner than permit the virgin breast of one of that sisterhood of States that originally fashioned the confederacy to be rudely invaded and ravaged by the Executive hand. In the issue thus engendered between these two extraordinary personages, both of whom have stamped their impress on the world, the one singly matched against the other, like David with his sling against Goliath with an army and banners at his back, the one reposing with confidence on principle, while the other contemptuously rested on power, Virginia viewing from afar the unequal strife, and admiring the brave and gallant bearing of her son, nobly responded to his call, generously rushed to his side, covered him with an impervious mantle, re clothed him with Senatorial robes, and enrolled his name imperishably in history. Foreseeing now the fixed departure of the Democrats from the Jeffersonian standard, and the certainty of the succession of Mr. Van Buren as their leader in 1836, and having been joined by that eminent patriot, tried statesman, and pure man, Hugh Lawson White, of Tennessee, who, like himself, had been from his seat in the Senate one of the earliest, warmest, and strongest supporters of General Jackson, but who could not follow him in his violent excesses, Mr. Tyler withdrew from all further communion with the administration

THE HISTORY OF PARTY, AND THE

ied back the State Rights Republicans to their former and independent flag. Thus, without burthening the with fatiguing details, was wrought out the attitude es in the contest of 1836. The various conven- assembled to select their respective chieftains. The its nominated Van Buren and Johnson, and the Na- epublicans chose Harrison and Granger, and the State epublicans arrayed themselves under White and and the battle terminated in the election of Mr. Van s President, but only by a bare plurality, failing alto- s to the Vice-President, who was finally preferred to ce by the Senate, demonstrating again, as in 1824, id 1832, the speaking fact that the balance of power untry was still maintained by the men of the Jeffer- tate Rights Republican school, whose destiny it would id will presently appear, like that attaching to the the house of Jesse, was to maintain from sacrilege of the covenant of the Constitution, in the midst of es of faction, the contentions of ambitions, and the of power, and finally to redeem the age from the ns that necessarily follow these aberrations from and disrupting practices.

ministration of Mr. Van Buren was the most disas- country ever witnessed, and gave rise to the great 1840, with its historically-freighted sequences. The s paper-money expansion of the State Banks, under y initiated by General Jackson after the subversion nited States Bank, based on the deposits of the gov- revenues, together with twenty millions of surplus easury, stimulated speculation and overtrading in all ctions, with immense importations of foreign goods, the balance of trade against us, leaving an enormous to Europe, and ending in a collapse despoiling the and bankrupting society. The Treasury, robbed of ues, lost its credit. Industrial pursuits, no longer l, fell prostrate. Everywhere, from within and with- government, from all classes of the community, from holder and laborer, artisan and mechanic, the cry of arose. The gold and silver currency, so eloquently l and assured by a famous Missouri Senator a few ore, was substituted by torn and rotten "*shinplase umbra*. The administration itself became headless ss, without energy in any of its departments. Noth- ed the navy save the idle exploring expedition of the es. Our ships, for the most part, lay rotting in

port. Not an armed fleet was to be seen. The navy-yards were silent, and the docks lay hollow. In a like condition was the army. From Maine to Louisiana the Atlantic forts were dismantled and untenanted. The pioneer outposts were unguarded. And in Florida a thousand or two of half-starved Seminole Indians had, year after year, baffled the Secretary of War, his generals, and his forces. The affairs of the mail and post-office were equally unsatisfactory. Pilfering, speculation, and the most wanton disregard of contracts attended them. In the customs, in the offices of receipt on lands as well as on importations, the doctrine of *rotation*, as regards tenure of title to office, sought to be established by the demagogues of the hour, seemed to have unsettled all ideas of honesty in the incumbents, so that out of the whole number of ninety-nine receivers ninety-eight proved defaulters, some of them to the amount of millions, and yet the most obnoxious were retained for the assigned reason, "a more greedy crew might follow." Relaxation of discipline, supineness, extravagance of expenditure without useful result, and corruption, as distinctively characterized the administration, as suspension of business, bankruptcy, and general distress, marked society. Under this state of affairs it would have been ordinarily an easy task for the opposition to grasp the power of Government from such polluted, feeble, and odious hands. But the leaders of the Democrats had applied to their followers a system of party-drill which made it almost impossible for one to escape from the ranks, however disaffected he might be, unless of rare and decided resolution. Besides, with the masses there was a magic in the appellation *Democrat* that enchained them irresistibly. It held out to them the idea of political and social equality, and was identified with the name of Jackson, who stood prefigured in their imagination as the "hero" who had conquered the British, the Indians, and the "monster" Bank, and who, therefore, could never have held association with anything unworthy, nor have committed an error in selecting Mr. Van Buren as his especial favorite and successor in the Presidential office. The individual constituents of Democracy, operated upon by these sentiments, and thus controlled by a thoroughly-matured organization, ramified and dovetailed throughout the Union, in the hands of astute, cunning, and remorseless leaders, still, in the face of social distress and malpractice in Government, formed a party too formidable to be despised. Viewing this fact, the State Rights Republicans determined not to hazard the approaching election of 1840 and the continuation of the administration with Mr. Van Buren at the head of the Democrats; and remembering

that, in 1824, and again in 1836, when they maintained an independent attitude before the country, in the one case under Crawford, and in the other case under White and Tyler, it led, in the first instance, to the election of a *latitudinarian* in Mr. Adams by the House of Representatives, and in the last instance to the election of no less a *latitudinarian* in Mr. Van Buren by a plurality vote, they resolved that, as they had successfully coalesced with the Democrats to oust from power Mr. Adams in 1828, so in 1840 they would coalesce with the National Republicans to oust from power Mr. Van Buren, the latter being as odious as the former to principle, and far more destructive to the country. It was but a *coalition* and not an *amalgamation* in the first case, and would be but a *coalition* and not an *amalgamation* in the last. The National Republicans, also remembering that, in 1828 and 1832, when the State Rights Republicans coalesced with the Democrats the Democratic party, thus strengthened, gained each time an overwhelming triumph, ardently desired and readily assented to an arrangement by which a similar advantage might accrue to them in 1840. The coalition was soon perfected as all such political arrangements usually are, without distinct formality, but tacitly, gradually, and silently, and no less effectually; and the name of "*Whig*," hallowed as the designation of the patriot-rebels of the Revolution, was adopted to cover the union. The joint convention of the new party met at Harrisburgh, in Pennsylvania, and selected Harrison as their candidate for the Presidency and Tyler for the Vice Presidency—General Harrison having been the Presidential candidate of the National Republicans in 1836, and the element of the new organization constituting three fourths of the whole; and Mr. Tyler having been the Vice-Presidential candidate of the State Rights Republicans in 1836, and being now, since the death of White, the very head and front, as he had been for twenty years past the life and soul of that element of the new organization. The Democrats formed again with order and discipline, and that confidence the ancient prestige of victory always inspires, under the banners of Van Buren and Johnson. The combatants thus respectively arrayed, met face to face in November, 1840, like those of Richmond and Richard on the field of Bosworth, and when the sun of that day went down, misrule and corruption were rebuked with disaster and defeat, and the standard of the coalition waved over the confederacy.

On the 4th of March, 1841, the administration of the coalesced "*Whig*" party, with Harrison as President, and Webster as Secretary of State, and representing popular majority

in the different States reaching in the aggregate one hundred and thirty thousand, with beat of drum and flying colors, and a rejoicing multitude, never before nor since beheld in the city of Washington, was solemnly inaugurated; and in May following the new Congress, called together by President Harrison in view of the necessities both of the Government and the country, met in extra session, showing a triumphant power for the administration in both branches, reaching in the House of Representatives alone a working vote of more than sixty over the Democrats, to be wielded by the brilliant oratory and daring mind of Henry Clay. But in the meanwhile, on the fourth day of April, the National Republican element of the party lost their President through the death of Harrison, and the State Rights Republicans gained a President, for the first time since the days of Monroe, in the constitutional succession of John Tyler. Of Mr. Tyler and his administration I come now specially to speak. Tau.

FEBRUARY 9, 1859.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE SORGHUM AND THE CANE SUGAR.

We have often given expression to our views upon the subject of the Sorghum, which has been so ridiculously paraded as something new and transcendently important to the country.

The Editor of the *Cincinnati*, published in Ohio, after a careful review of the subject, coincides in our general opinions. We allow him to speak (p. 4):

We find it stated that an acre of cane on a Southern plantation will produce, on an average, one thousand six hundred and twenty-five pounds of sugar and seventy-five gallons of molasses. Can the Sorghum be made to produce such, or equivalent result? And if so, can it be done at a less cost? Here is a wide field for conjecture, without facts satisfactorily to answer these questions; but we feel assured that the most favorable showing will be adverse to such production. It will be found that the fuel, time, and labor, in connection with the immense outlay necessary for machinery to conduct the business in the most economical manner—such as is employed on the Southern sugar plantations—will not be justified in the manufacture of Sorghum sirup; and as the Sorghum will grow quite as well South as in a more northern latitude, the climate being better adapted to the development of saccharine matter, may it not well be questioned whether we can manufacture an article cheaper than those who have all the fixtures at hand, with the experience and scientific knowledge for its economical production they already have directly in the line of their staple products? At the North it is a new enterprise; this experience must be had and expense incurred by our Northern Sorghum producers; and they must turn attention to this crop at a time when the gathering in of fall crops and other important farm duties are pressing. That a palatable sirup can be and is produced, we have facts to establish. That farmers may grow yearly a small patch and make a little store of sirup for themselves upon a small scale, with their domestic fixtures, as they do their maple molasses, where they have wood and a family of boys to attend the kettles, we think likely, and perhaps quite *admirable*. Money is often saved in this way, and the country, as a whole

greatly enriched by it, as in the manufacture of sugar and molasses from the maple. But to justify an extensive expenditure to manufacture for market, home or foreign, we are satisfied it will not pay and can not come in competition. As to making beer and alcohol, we have no doubt of its adaptability, independent of the moral bearings of this question, which are weighty, we say, for this we do not need it! Our staple crops are abundant, and our mills and fixtures in existence are not adapted to the new product. As a forage-crop, we do not esteem it superior to corn, while the difficulty of curing the seed-heads and afterward converting them into a profitable product, subtracts greatly from the value placed upon it.

2.—AGRICULTURAL PRACTICE IN TEXAS.

WE are indebted to the publishers, W. & D. Richardson, of Galveston, for a copy of their most useful Almanac of Texas for 1859, which contains an immense amount of historical, biographical and statistical information in compact form, together with an excellent map of the State.

To give some idea of the mode of practice adopted in cultivation in some parts of Texas, we extract from the letter of J. D. Waters, of Fort Bend, (p. 77):

PREPARATION FOR CORN.—The usual method of preparing corn land is, to lay off the rows four feet wide and flush the intervening ground. This leaves on each side of each bed, an under furrow, in which the corn is planted. This preparation should be made in January—always by the first of February. The earliest planting, in favorable seasons, generally commences about the 15th of February. Planters in this vicinity finish commonly by the first of March.

PREPARATION FOR COTTON.—The preparation for a cotton crop begins about the 1st of January. The following is the usual method pursued in this county: First lay off your ground from six to eight feet, and with a large two-horse turning-plough, throw up a bed as high as can be conveniently made, leaving on each side of each bed, as deep a furrow as possible, which will take off the water after heavy rains. Let it remain in this condition until the 10th of March, about which time planting commonly commences.

PREPARATION FOR CANE.—For cane, the course I pursue, is first, to lay off my ground in rows from six to eight feet, and then with a large two-horse turning plough, run two furrows together as deep as possible, and clean them out well with hoes, in order to deepen and widen them. Keep your planting up with the ploughs, which is done any time between the first of December and the first of March.

CORN.—Corn, in this vicinity, is planted in drills from sixteen to twenty inches apart, and covered commonly with a light turning-plough. After it has come to a stand, allow it to remain until four to six inches high: then with a light-turning plough, run round it, always keeping the bar of the plough next to the corn, so as to throw the dirt from it. Then follow with the hoes, and hop out the young grass and weeds. Thin it to a stand, adding a little dirt at the same time. Corn should be worked once in fifteen days, adding dirt each time, so that by the time it is laid by there may be formed around it a wide and leveled bed. With us, corn is in roasting-early the 15th of June, and is ready for harvesting from the 20th of August to the 1st of September. Our average yield per acre is about fifty bushels on bottom-lands, and thirty bushels on up-lands. Seventy-five bushels per acre throughout an entire crop is not uncommon, in favorable seasons, on our good bottom-lands.

COTTON.—About the 10th of March (by which time early planting is commenced), open the beds that have been prepared in January, with a scooter, or arrow shovel-plough. The furrows should be from four to six inches deep. Then cast the seed into them very thick, and cover with a board attached to the heel of the plough, or with a harrow, as the planter may prefer. Afterward run a roller over the beds so as to settle the dirt around the seed; and the roller also compacts the earth, causing it to retain the moisture better, and *crases* the planter's chances of securing a stand. After the cotton has come a stand, the bed should be carefully scraped down on each side of it with a hoe, and all the young grass and weeds removed. Three or four days after

scraping, run around it with ploughs, keeping always the bar of the plough next to the plant, so as to throw the dirt from it; leave six inches of earth undisturbed between the furrow and the young cotton.

It is allowed to remain after this, about two weeks, when the ploughs are again put into it, and the dirt replaced which has been previously thrown from it; four furrows generally answer the purpose at this stage; in three or four days, chop through the cotton, leaving it in bunches about one foot apart, and from four to six stalks in a bunch; there will be remaining after chopping it out, nearly double the quantity of cotton required when it is thinned finally to a stand; this is done to guard against any disaster that may occur to it from too much rain, the worm, or any other cause. It is not disturbed again for two weeks, when the ploughs are again started; dirt is thrown to the cotton, and the middles broken thoroughly; after the ploughs, the hoes follow immediately and thin the cotton to a stand; this is done by chopping down alternately one of the bunches left; allow but one stalk in a place to remain. After the crop is thinned to a stand, the plants should not be nearer each other than two feet; from this time the cotton should be worked once every two weeks, until the cultivation is disposed of, which is generally about the middle of July.

Early cotton is in blossom about the 20th of May. Cotton commences to open generally by the 1st of August, though there is much of it open and ready to pick before that time. The usual time of picking cotton among planters generally, is about the 10th of August on bottom-lands, and earlier on uplands, eight bales per hand, weighing five hundred pounds each, is about the average on well-managed plantations. Our bottom lands will average two thousand pounds, or more, to the acre; uplands yield from twelve to fourteen hundred pounds to the acre. Ten bales may be made and gathered by each hand; and sometimes more is raised, but seldom gathered, by a single hand. The season for gathering cotton is from three to four weeks longer in Texas than in Alabama, and I think the same may be said of most of the other cotton States.

CANE.—Cane is planted by first laying a single stalk in the furrow heretofore described, and then another stalk is laid so as to lap half the length of the first, and so on throughout. Cane should be used in laying the stalks of cane, so that all the butts may point in one direction. Hands follow immediately after the cane-droppers, with sharp knives, and cut each stalk into three pieces; this cutting is necessary, to prevent the shoots from the butts of the cane, where there is more vigor and vitality, from exhausting the shoots from the upper and less vigorous portion of the stalk. Follow immediately after the cane is cut and replaced, and cover it from four to six inches deep, with large turning-ploughs, four furrows are necessary to do this completely and effectually. After the cane is planted, let it remain until spring opens, which will be known from seeing an occasional shoot making its appearance. As soon as you are convinced that the crop has commenced to sprout, scrape a portion of the earth from above the cane, leaving it two or three inches below the surface. The object for doing this, is to bring out, as nearly together as possible, all the shoots at the same time, the weakly, as well as the strong and vigorous. By aiding it in this way, additional time is gained for growing and maturing the crop. If after heavy rains, or from any other cause, the surface becomes hard, it will be necessary to loosen the dirt around the cane, as the young shoots find great difficulty in making their way through the crusty earth.

As soon as sufficient young cane has made its appearance to mark distinctly the rows, the process of cultivation is as follows: Run around the young cane as in young corn, throwing the dirt from it; follow as soon as possible with the hoes, and loosen the dirt in the same manner as when coming up. In about ten days, plough a-rain, and throw the dirt back into the furrow made by running around it the first time; but be careful not to throw the dirt among the young cane; plough the middle of the rows this time thoroughly, and leave in the centre of each a deep, wide, and straight furrow; this course of cultivation is pursued until your stand is perfected. With the hoes, add each time you go over it, a very little dirt. The stand should be complete by the 20th of May; and whether so or not, it will be necessary to commence dishing the cane, both with the plough and hoe. Shoots coming after this time will not mature, and should, therefore, be prevented from coming, as they encumber the land.

Cane requires a higher cultivation than corn or cotton; in fact, to do it justice, it should be worked once in ten days, and very thoroughly each time. Ploughing cane should cease by the 20th of June, as it has, by that time, generally attained a sufficient size to shade the ground completely, and thus smother the grass, etc. It should, however, be gone over occasionally, to cut out the vine, which is troublesome on our plantations. Rolling commences about the 15th of October, and continues until Christmas, generally.

The average yield per acre is about sixteen hundred pounds; ten thousand pounds of sugar; and eighty gallons of molasses to each thousand pounds, is usually made to each hand, with fair management.

3.—NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY.

This body held its Seventh Annual Meeting, on January last, at Washington City, and we regret that a necessary presence at the South forbade us from being here. It is our earnest hope that the Society will continue its labors, and that the union of the several State and County Associations in it, may be more intimate and extended every year. Most of the active members are earnest and enthusiastic, and the President, Gen. Trench Tilghman, of Maryland, devotes a great deal of time to the interests of the Society.

The total disbursements during last year, for premiums and other expenses, reached \$5,969 80.

The following account of the history of the Society, is extracted from the report of Gen. Tilghman:

On the 14th of June, 1851, a National Agricultural Convention was held at the Smithsonian Institution, in Washington, under a call issued by the following Agricultural Societies, at the instance of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture:

The Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture; Pennsylvania State Agricultural Society; New-York State Agricultural Society; Southern Central Agricultural Society; Ohio State Board of Agriculture; American Institute, New-York; Massachusetts Society for the Promotion of Agriculture; Indiana State Board of Agriculture; New-Hampshire Agricultural Society; Vermont Agricultural Society; and the Rhode Island Society for the Encouragement of American Industry.

The convention was composed of 153 delegates, representing 23 States and Territories. Among those who were present during its sessions, were the Hon. Millard Fillmore, President of the United States, and Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

The following gentlemen composed the committee who drafted its constitution; Messrs. Holcomb, of Delaware; Dawson, of Georgia; French, of Massachusetts; Steele, of New-Hampshire; Thurston, of Rhode Island; Hubbard, of Connecticut; Stevens, of Vermont; Elwyn, of Pennsylvania; Calvert, of Maryland; Campbell, of Ohio; Hancock, of New-Jersey; Callan of the District of Columbia; G. W. P. Custis, of Virginia; Burgwyn, of North Carolina; Taylor, of Alabama; De Bow, of Louisiana; Spence, of Indiana; Mallory, of Kentucky; Bell, of Tennessee; Weston, of Wisconsin; McLane, of California; Pickard, of Maine; and Seaman, of Michigan.

On the lists of its members was to be found the names of many of the most distinguished men in the nation, and it would compare favorably, in this respect, with any institution in the country.

The objects of the Society, as declared by the preamble to its constitution, were to improve the agriculture of the country by attracting attention, eliciting the views, and confirming the efforts of the great class composing the agricultural community, and to secure the advantages of a better organization, and more extended usefulness among all State, county, and other agricultural societies.

The first annual meeting was held on the 2d of February, 1853, since which they have been regularly continued. The first number of the transactions was issued in August, 1853, and was continued quarterly for the first year, since

which time its issue has been annual. The first fair was held on the 17th of October, 1853, at Springfield, Mass. Annual exhibitions had also been held in Ohio, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and Virginia, at which there had been expended upward of \$100,000. In 1857, it held a national trial of reapers and mowers at Syracuse, N. Y., unequalled by any similar exhibition that had ever been held—the illustrated report of which, together with the other operations of the Society, had given it a high position among the national agricultural societies of the world.

It had already been stated that the first extended experiments in the culture of sugar-cane, in this country, were made at the expense, and under the direction of the Society, for which purpose seed was imported from France sufficient to plant one hundred acres, and results obtained from ninety locations, extending from the province of New-Brunswick to Mexico, and from Florida to Washington Territory.

It would thus be seen that the Society has its distinct sphere of operations, within which its proceedings had been steadily conducted, and that it afforded a common ground on which those of every shade of opinion could meet as brethren in the prosecution of a common interest.

4.—AGRICULTURE AS A PROFESSION.

At the present time, when we have so many among us who are engaged in agricultural pursuits, a few reflections upon Agriculture as a profession will not be considered inappropriate or out of place. Poets have sung of the beauties, advantages and pleasures of this glorious life. Statesmen, after the turmoil and labor of political life, and the contentions of the Legislative Hall, have gladly sought repose and retirement on the farm. Merchants, when the vexations and toils and uncertainties of their calling have worn out their health and energy, longingly hope to spend the remnant of their days in the tillage of the soil. Professional men, harassed with their cares and responsibilities, and their rough contests with their fellow-men, fondly indulge in the same expectation—and those who have tried it have found their fullest expectations realized.

Agriculture, of course, has its cares and annoyances. Every profession has these to encounter. It is fore-ordained that man must live by the sweat of his brow—and industry and care and labor are requisite for success in every employment. We speak by comparison when we say, that the culture of the soil combines more positive pleasures, with fewer disagreeable incidents, than any other calling. In the first place, it is the most *independent* life which any man can follow. While the politician, and the merchant, and the professional man, and the editor, must have daily intercourse with men, and must exercise prudence and forbearance, and must humor this one, and consult the prejudices of the other, and must bear with ill-temper, and ignorance, and unreasonable requirements of those with whom they have dealings, the farmer, on the contrary, is independent of them all. When his crop is ready for the market, he has only to sell at the highest price he can get, and here his necessary intercourse with all others ends. He may pursue the even tenor of his way, regardless of the opinions of the world.

In the next place, it is the most *healthful* of all pursuits. The statistics of mortality prove the farmer to be longer-lived, in the general, than any other class. While he has principally physical labor to perform, other professions have mental labors in addition, which harass the mind and wear down the constitution. Farming, it is true, is a laborious life; but this very labor strengthens the frame, conduces to health, promotes longevity, and gives zest to the planter's life.

Take it all in all, farming is about as remunerative as any other profession. Ten merchants fail in business where one farmer does. Professional men rarely grow rich from their professions alone, and politicians notoriously die poor, unless they accumulate wealth by stealing.

If the farmer, at the end of the year, has been able only to "make both ends meet," he has done well—for his property is increasing and accumulating all the time. In fact, it is a much more profitable business than many of those engaged in it are themselves aware of. True, the farmer has to encounter occa-

ionally bad seasons and short crops, and low prices; but, in the long run, the general average is favorable to him. And what he falls short in one year, he is very apt to make up in another.

The farmers and planters of the South, in a political point of view, constitute the great conservative class of the country. They are not so subject to violent excitement, and are not so easily carried away by passion, as the commercial and manufacturing classes of the large cities. Where they are educated and intelligent, as most of them are, they are averse to everything like mob-law, and subordination. "*O fortunatos Agricolas, si sua bona norint,*" was the exclamation of the Latin poet nearly two thousand years ago, and the remark may be made with still greater truth at the present day.—*Lynchburg Virginian*.

5.—AGRICULTURE OF VIRGINIA AND OF ENGLAND.

THE Hon. Charles J. Faulkner, of Virginia, in a recent agricultural address, gives some interesting facts in relation to the wheat capacities and growth of his own State, as compared with that of England.

Less than a century ago the entire production of wheat in England fell short of sixteen millions of bushels. By the returns of 1853—the latest authentic returns which I have seen—her production was ninety millions of bushels, averaging a yield of thirty bushels upon every acre cultivated in wheat, and yielding from three millions of acres a product nearly equal to that grown in the thirty-one States and Territories of this vast Confederacy, covering three millions of square miles. If any fact could more strongly illustrate the capacity of the soil to remunerate the labor of man, it would be that this increase in very other product and in the number and quality of their live stock has been in the same proportion. England is unquestionably the greatest commercial and manufacturing power on the globe; her navies ride in every sea, and the vidences of her mechanical skill are scattered over every land, and yet it appears from the returns of her income tax that the net revenue of all her manufactures and commerce, and of all her immense personal capital, does not exceed two thirds of the net income from the agricultural productions of that small island.

England, including Wales, is in territorial extent less than Virginia, and yet her entire product of wheat in this State from the harvest of 1849, as appears by the census, was but 11,212,616, exhibiting an average of seven bushels to the acre for the land in cultivation in that grain; an average, by-the-by, for the State greater than can be justified upon any principle of calculation that can be made to apply from the materials furnished by the census.

To what, then, are we to ascribe this vast superiority of England over this State and over this valley in the production of wheat? Is it to her soil and climate? Far from it. Nearly three millions of acres of her lands remain entirely unproductive, having hitherto resisted all attempts at cultivation, and of her remaining surface two thirds, at least, are ungrateful and stubborn lands, which human industry alone has subdued. The southern part of the island is composed of granite soils, similar to those of the New-England States. In the north, the mountains which separate England from Scotland cover with their ramifications the larger part of seven counties; wherever the ground is not hilly it is in general naturally marshy. The counties of Lincoln and Cambridge, now reckoned among the most productive, were formerly but one vast marsh, partially covered by the sea, like the polders of Holland opposite them, on the other side of the channel. Numerous peat-mosses still show the primitive state of the country. In other portions are extensive sands abandoned by the sea, such as the county of Norfolk, where that system of agriculture arose which has made the fortune of England. Several of the counties consist of *tiff clay land*, which is found exceedingly troublesome to cultivate. Left to itself, this clay never dries in England, and when not transformed by manure and improved by draining, farmers despair of making anything of it. In a portion of the island chalky lands of an indifferent quality prevail, the chalk showing itself almost in a pure state on the surface. Less than one third of its area composed of sandy clay soils, and the loams of the lower valleys. The rivers are short and the valleys narrow, alluvial lands are rather scarce.

A considerable portion of the soil of this valley is argillaceous—a soft loam upon a substratum of clay. Limestone, with its associated slaty and silicious lands, varying in color from the deepest blue to a light gray, and presenting every modification of texture, occupy all the intervening space from the yellow sandstone of the Blue Ridge to the lighter colored sandstone of the North Mountain. Notwithstanding the general diffusion of limestone rock in this valley, it is stated by Prof. Rodgers, upon analysis, our soil is found to contain little or no calcareous matter even where taken from the immediate vicinity of the limestone rock, and the same phenomenon was observed by his brother and himself in the corresponding regions of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. If this be so, still nature has bountifully diffused throughout this section of the State limestone rock yielding 80, 90, and even 96 per cent. of carbonate of lime, which may readily be applied to the soil for all the purposes for which it may be found beneficial. Without going further into a detail of the distinctive characteristics of the two regions, it may be very safely asserted that the soil of this valley, and especially in the counties of Clarke, Jefferson, and Berkley, are, in all their natural constituents, superior to the lands in England.

6.—INTRODUCTION OF COTTON AT THE SOUTH.

In our last issue, Judge Clayton, speaking of the agricultural advancement of the South, makes a statement in regard to the introduction of cotton which calls forth the following in the *Southern Rural Gentleman* :

That General Clark was the first to introduce cotton seed into some portion of the South, Judge Clayton's assertion is sufficient evidence, but that he introduced the first cotton seed into the Southern country, as the Judge's unremitting language certainly leads us to understand, and which is probably attributable to the haste to which he alludes in which his address was prepared, is not, I think, borne out by the history of the plant.

If my recollection of what I have seen on the subject be correct, Judge Clayton must be in error as to the date of the introduction of cotton. It is not necessary, however, to establish the certainty of the date of the shipment of cotton in order to show the Judge to have been led into error on this subject. History speaks plainly on this point : "The first culture of cotton in the United States deserves commemoration. This year (1621) the seeds were planted as an experiment; and their plentiful coming up was, at that early day, a subject of interest in America and England."—(Bancroft's *United States*, 1st vol., p. 179, twelfth edition.) By reference to the author just quoted, it may be seen that a rather remarkable series of events occurred about the same time. The events are these : In August, 1620, negroes as slaves, were first introduced into Virginia; in 1621 the first crop of cotton, of which we have record, was grown in Virginia; in July, 1621, the first written constitution was ordained and established in Virginia, for "the greatest comfort and benefit of the people, and the prevention of injustice, grievances, and oppression."

Although I have, apparently, taken issue with the Judge as to a matter of fact, permit me to express my sympathy in his feelings and coincidence in his opinions on the subject of slavery.

7.—THE TOBACCO INTEREST.

The following joint resolutions in relation to the tobacco trade of the United States with foreign nations, were introduced, by unanimous consent, in the United States House of Representatives, by the Hon. T. F. Bowie, of Maryland. The resolutions were referred to the Committee on Agriculture :

JOINT RESOLUTIONS in relation to the Tobacco trade of the United States with foreign nations.

Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the trade in tobacco with Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Austria, Brazil, and all other foreign nations, is clogged with restrictions and limitations wholly inconsistent with a fair reciprocal condition of commerce which ought to exist between the United States and those nations.

respectively, and is, therefore, unsatisfactory to the States of Virginia, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, Missouri, Tennessee, Ohio, and Connecticut, in which the article of tobacco is an important if not the chief staple of agricultural product.

SEC. 2. *Be it further resolved*, That it is the duty of the Federal Government to use its utmost power by negotiation or other constitutional means to obtain a modification or reduction on the part of said foreign nations of the duties and restrictions imposed by them on the importation of American tobacco, and to this end to employ all the diplomatic and commercial powers which the Constitution has confided in it, in producing a more just and equal reciprocity in a trade so deeply involving the value of that portion of the Agricultural labor of the country in which at least one fourth of the confederacy is concerned.

SEC. 3. *Be it further resolved*, That the treaties of the United States with China and Japan present a fair and fitting occasion for the enlargement and extension of the tobacco trade of the United States, and it is the duty of the Government of the United States to use all their exertions within the limits of constitutional power, to foster and encourage the introduction of American tobacco as an article of use among the people of those nations.

SEC. 4. *Be it further resolved*, That diplomatic negotiations with England, France, Spain, and Austria, as well as with China and Japan, ought to be commenced as soon as practicable by the Government of the United States, with the view of obtaining a modification of the existing systems of revenue and taxation of those nations, in respect to American tobacco; and for this purpose instructions ought to be given to our foreign ministers, consuls, and commercial agents, in those nations, by the Executive of the United States, to use all their constitutional and legitimate functions in producing so desirable a result.

DEPARTMENT OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

1.—GOLD REGIONS OF GEORGIA.

In the *South Countryman*, a new agricultural magazine, published at Macon, Georgia, we find an able paper, by M. S. Stephens, on the gold mines of Georgia.

The area covered by them is about 150 miles in length, and extends from Columbia county to the State line on the north. The aggregate yield has been from twelve to fifteen millions of dollars. We extract as follows:

Its whole extent is over 700 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. In Georgia it extends from Columbia county, on the S. E., to the State line on the north. The predominating rocks are mica slate, granite, gneiss, talcose slate, and hornblende. The quantity of gold obtained since 1829, when first discovered, can never be ascertained with any approach to accuracy; as it was carried off and sold to merchants and adventurers for eight years previous to the establishment of the Mint at this place. During that period, there were twice as many hands employed in washing; and most of the rich branch and river deposits were exhausted before any correct data were furnished for determining the amount made; but taking the six millions coined at the Mint since, and comparing the number of hands engaged with the former period, we cannot be far from the truth in estimating the yield at fifteen millions of dollars. Since the discovery of gold in California, the most of our miners have left for that country, under the impression that they would suddenly make fortunes; which, it is to be regretted, has proved to be fallacious. After enduring unheard-of hardships and privations, thousands of them have perished from the effects of climate, or still remain there, believing that something may turn up, and they may yet realize their fond hopes. While some few have succeeded, the majority are doomed to live and die without success. In the last few months a new spirit of enterprise has been infused into the people here, partly by the accidental discovery of very rich vein mines, and partly by the introduction of the new California

hydraulic process of washing—by canalling the river from the mountains, twelve miles off, to the gold belt, which will give a water power acting from an altitude of 200 to 300 feet above the ravine and river beds—enabling the miner to use the water several times. The company engaged in this great enterprise are from North Carolina, and the works are superintended by Dr. Van Dyke, who has been engaged for several years in California and North Carolina with success; and must, by his extensive practical knowledge, realize his most sanguine expectations, and produce a complete revolution in the mining business throughout the country.

He says that, with a head of water of 80 to 100 feet, acting from a hose-pipe 1½ inches in diameter on a silicious clay and decomposed slate, one hand can remove more in a day than twenty in the ordinary way. Professor Blake, in his report to the company upon a careful survey of this region, says: "That ground which will yield one fifth of a cent per bushel, will pay good profits, and such as yields 60 cents per hand each day, will pay \$10 by this process." If these estimates are sustained by practical application, Lumpkin county alone will yield several millions a year.

The extent of auriferous ground which will pay heavy profits is very considerable—embracing a belt 50 miles long, and from a half to three miles wide—averaging a mile in width. As Prof. Blake, in his report, estimates the field from the Chestatee river to the Yahoola creek, to contain 1000 acres of such paying land in a distance of 8 miles, which will pay six millions of dollars: on the same basis of calculation, the 20 miles from the Yahoola creek to the big Savannah on the Etowah river, two miles wide, will yield more than \$150,000,000. This is exclusive of what may be obtained from the numerous veins which will be discovered by denuding the hills, and thus enabling the miner to reach his ores and select them without the expense and tedious working by the usual mode.

2.—THE SOUTHERN OIL COMPANY.

THE *New-Orleans Bulletin* uses the following language in noticing the new Southern Oil Company:

The company have pursued a most judicious policy in introducing the oil. Knowing that the oil heretofore manufactured from rosin was impure and unfit for lubricating purposes, and that almost every engineer had tried and condemned it, they have refused, up to the present time, to dispose of their machinery oil except to planters, preferring to have experiments and tests made by parties of acknowledged ability, whose evidence would forever put to rest the opinions of those who were disposed to condemn without giving it a fair trial. The result proves that they argued correctly in moving slowly but surely, and thus in the end saving much delay. The evidence now presented is overwhelming and incontrovertible. It has been forced by the intrinsic merit of the oil, and that after being put to the severest tests, such an ordeal, in truth, as was never thought of applying to sperm or lard oil.

We take a peculiar pride in calling attention to this grand Southern movement, and to note its progress and final success. We were among its earliest advocates, yet, from the peculiar position we held in the company, we could not consistently take up our pen against public opinion, for no matter how firmly we believed in the ultimate results, we were not fortified with facts.

Now, we can with safety congratulate the entire South on the acquisition of another powerful weapon of defence against the aggression of the North. The Southern Oil Company is a fixed and permanent institution of the South; and it will not be many years before it will be as important as a revenue as is our sugar or cotton. This is no random assertion. The conclusion is drawn from the amount of oil consumed on machinery in the United States, which is computed by competent practical machinists at not less than twelve to fifteen millions of gallons per annum! It must be remembered that the consumption is increasing with almost incalculable rapidity, and to estimate what will be required for lubricating purposes alone at the expiration of even five years from the present time, would be an (almost) herculean task.

Independent of the natural increase in every description of machinery for

manufacturing purposes, the rapid increase in steam navigation, the completion of railways now under contract, and the thousand and one channels of consumption in the various branches of agricultural pursuits—all these we will set aside, and take for example, to illustrate our position, the single item of increased demand on the railroads already in operation.

We hazard little in predicting that it will require the erection of at least three factories per annum, each of the capacity of those belonging to the Southern Oil Company, to meet the wants growing out of the increase in transportation of freight and passengers on the roads now completed.

The falling off in the whale fisheries has been the source of serious alarm among those interested in mechanical pursuits for several years past.

A substitute has become an actual necessity, and it is now furnished by the South in inexhaustible profusion. It is a monopoly under the control and in the possession of the South; and one which, if we mistake not, will be turned to profitable account. Want of space precludes our pursuing this subject further to-day; but we cannot bring this article to a close, without calling on our merchants and capitalists to foster and encourage home industry and Southern enterprise. The time has arrived when it is incumbent upon the South to protect her own interest; and nothing so largely contributes to wealth and independence as to make all the resources which nature has given us available and productive.

3 -MINERAL WEALTH OF THE WORLD.

The value of precious metals produced per annum in the United States, as compared with Europe, is estimated in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* thus:

United States	£16,630,625	Prussia	£4,100,000
Great Britain	20,835,375	Belgium	1,933,125
Australia	8,314,167	Spain	1,670,000
Mexico	6,350,000	Sweden and Norway	1,157,000
Russian Empire	5,238,437	Saxony	365,125
France	3,177,000	Hartz District	293,000
Chile	2,535,433	Italy	173,437
Rest of North America	2,500,000	Switzerland	78,125
Austrian Empire	553,000		

An approximate attempt at exhibiting a complete view of the metallic produce of the world for 1854, has been made in the subjoined table by Mr. Whittier:

TABLE OF METALLIC PRODUCE FOR 1854.

COUNTRY.	GOLD.	SILVER.	EMERALD.	TAL.	COPPER.	ZINC.	LEAD.	IRON.
	<i>tons, tons.</i>	<i>tons, tons.</i>	<i>tons, tons.</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>tons.</i>	<i>tons.</i>
Russia	6,000	50,000			6,500	4,000	800	200,000
Sweden	20	25,000			1,000	400	200	150,000
Norway		17,000						50,000
Great Britain	100	70,000		7,000	14,500	1,000	61,000	100,000
Belgium					16,000	1,000	1,000	300,000
Prussia		30,000			1,500	20,000	8,000	100,000
Italy	6	30,000			150	1	5,000	
Saxony		60,000			50		200	7,000
Kingdom of Saxony		3,000					1,000	100,000
Austria	5,000	90,000	500,000	50	3,000	1,000	7,000	225,000
Switzerland		5,000						15,000
France		5,000					1,000	60,000
Spain	42	125,000	2,500,000	10	500		20,000	100,000
Italy					200		500	
Africa	4,000				600			
East Indian								
South America	25,000			5,000	3,000			
Australia	150,000	8,000			25,000			
Chile	1,000	250,000			14,000			
Brazil	1,200	130,000						
Peru	1,900	30,000	200,000	4,500				
Central and New								
Guatemala	15,000	130,000			1,500			
Brazil	5,000	700						
Mexico	1,000	1,750,000						
Cuba					2,000			
United States, including California	20,000	22,000	1,000,000		3,500	5,000	1,000	100,000
Total	470,000	2,812,000	4,200,000	1,000	50,800	60,500	130,000	1,302,000

4.—SOUTHERN SHOE FACTORIES.

The following is copied from the New-Orleans *Crescent*. What the merits of the writer's proposals are, we have no means, at present, of knowing. Undoubtedly the matter is of great importance. The disastrous failure, however, which attended the Shoe Factory in Charleston, some years ago, has disheartened many who were once very hopeful.

The importance of the shoe trade to both sections of the country need only be suggested to cause the subject herein referred to, to acquire additional importance. When the vast amount of capital (amounting to many millions) is observed, the most careless man will consider with attention any system by which the profits from those millions can be controlled. We find from the census of 1850 that there were in the Southern States at that time 3,204,313 slaves, and it is certain that at this time there is at least that number, for whom their masters buy at least two pairs of shoes yearly—making a total of 6,408,626 pairs. These shoes will cost this year the Southern planters at least \$7,209,794.

In the State of Louisiana alone, following the same calculations and authority, there will be paid for this article the sum of \$550,820. It would be impossible, in the compass of this article, to show what a large business is done with the whites of the South. Most of this large sum goes to enrich Northern manufacturers, the larger part to Massachusetts. This view shows it to be a subject of great magnitude to the South. The writer has at his control a system by which the Southern man can not only make all these articles as well and as cheaply as they are now made, but actually far cheaper, and at least as good—some say better. It can be done by our negroes, with but a very small number of men skilled in the art. It can be done without any loss of interest in the purchase of leather, but actually with a saving therein. It can be done with a speed and accuracy astonishing, and the amount of capital required is so small that it seems ridiculously so when compared with the results.

In the present state of internal affairs, every dollar saved to the South from the sales of its products, is one strong tower of defence to our peculiar system. It is said the South cannot manufacture for itself; but that is merely a weak belief in an assumed axiom. The writer knows, from personal observation, that he can, with any negroes who are capable of running a sewing machine, manufacture all kinds of shoes and boots, &c., &c.; and that, too, with a yield of at least five, and probably ten pairs each day, to every hand employed in his factory; and out of 120 hands employed, he will only need 20 who are brought up to the trade.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

The amount of capital invested in manufactures in Richmond, is estimated at over \$6,000,000, and the product in the last year reached about \$20,000,000. The population now reaches in the vicinity of 45,000, of which about one third are blacks. The assessed value of real estate in the city, is \$18,423,343, of personal estate, \$9,876,371.

By the census of 1850, the population of Richmond showed as follows:

	Male.	Female.	Total.
White, ...	7,783	7,491	15,274
Free Colored, ...	1,075	1,294	2,369
Slave, ...	5,307	4,620	9,927
Total, ...	14,165	13,405	27,570

Consumption of Foreign in 1858, as above	214,758	Tons
Consumption of Foreign in 1857	241,765	"

Consumption of Foreign in 1858.....	244,758 Ton
Add crop of 1857-'58 of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, &c., the bulk of which came to market in 1858, and assuming the Stock 1st January, each year, to be equal.....	143,734 "
Would make the total consumption in the United States of Cane Sugar in 1858.....	388,492 "
Total consumption of Domestic and Foreign in 1857.....	290,765 "
Increase in 1858	107,727 "

3.—COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

In our last we spoke of the improvement going on at the bar of Charleston in deepening the channel. Since then we have seen a statement in the *Charleston Mercury*, that although the direct importations from abroad last year were lower than usual, the stocks on hand of every kind are very heavy, and every inducement is opened to the Country Merchants to purchase there.

Year.	No. of Vessels engaged in the trade.	Dutiable value of Imports.	Duties.	Value of Exports.
1850.....	256	\$2,104,661	\$523,744 03	\$13,398,736
1851.....	307	2,320,337	628,240 38	11,977,298
1852.....	243	1,802,095	440,629 45	13,887,363
1853.....	272	1,706,630	422,810 10	12,697,961
1854.....	324	1,493,250	384,876 00	12,245,716
1855.....	296	1,873,701	500,244 00	14,494,853
1856.....	312	1,984,205	467,825 51	16,777,943
1857.....	284	2,113,947	527,530 33	15,790,782
1858.....	326	912,828	300,504 11	19,321,585
Total.....	2,620	\$16,313,996	\$4,204,240 95	\$10,502,427

Average amount of exports for last eight years, \$15,324,053.

EXPORTS TO		EXPORTS TO	
Russia.....	\$206,180	Cuba.....	\$431,281
Sweden and Norway.....	148,534	Sardinia.....	49,641
Denmark.....	43,675	Brazil.....	33,173
Hamburg.....	141,952	Uruguay.....	11,368
Bremen.....	551,001	Mexico.....	1,560
Holland.....	253,028	Porto Rico.....	38,662
England.....	12,507,584	Canary Islands.....	50
Scotland.....	177,543	Spain.....	502,877
Ireland.....	11,645	Africa.....	4,254
British West Indies.....	44,271	Austria.....	114,024
France on the Atlantic.....	2,870,922	Total.....	\$19,321,585
Spain on the Mediterranean.....	1,059,665		
Belgium.....	48,500		

4.—ST. LOUIS IN 1858.

We have just received, through the kindness of the Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, the Annual Statement of Trade and Commerce of that city, in pamphlet form, for 1858.

By the census of this year, the total population is ascertained to be 135,339, being a duplication since the census of 1850, there being a decline in the actual number of negroes in that time. Of this total population, 59,657 only are Americans, the Irish number 22,914, and the Germans 43,874, the Negroes are 1,381 free, and 1,484 slaves.

The receipt of some articles of produce were as follows:

Tobacco.....	bbls.	6,174
Hemp.....	bales	81,000
Flour.....	bbls.	687,453
Wheat.....	bushels	3,765,750
Sugar.....	bbls.	50,700

from the manner in which the tables are made out, it is impossible without labor to get at the results. We trust that this will

5.—IMPORTS OF IRON.

Statement exhibiting the quantity and value of Iron and Steel, and manufactures thereof, imported into the United States during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1856, 1857 and 1858.

ARTICLES.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Bar Iron.....	\$5,352,785	\$4,423,935	\$3,318,913
Rod Iron.....	478,523	809,901	426,499
Hoop Iron.....	345,094	824,675	273,236
Sheet Iron.....	814,342	1,082,389	945,073
Pig Iron.....	1,171,085	1,001,742	739,949
Old and Scrap Iron.....	185,112	111,680	67,113
Railroad Iron.....	6,179,280	7,465,596	2,987,576
Wire, cap and bonnet.....	4,892	6,168	6,900
Nails, Spikes and Tacks.....	127,879	188,756	100,481
Chain Cables.....	485,568	293,124	153,406
Anchor and Parts.....	39,866	32,980	8,072
Anvils and Parts.....	46,828	67,926	45,275
Manufactures of Iron and Steel.....	6,810,685	7,521,625	5,360,343
Steel.....	2,538,323	2,683,614	1,873,111
	\$24,560,202	\$25,964,111	\$16,328,039

6.—TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Balance of tonnage June 30, 1857..... 4,940,849
 Built, registered, enrolled and licensed during the year.... 271,900

Total supply..... 5,212,743

Sold to foreigners..... 26,804
 Condemned..... 16,037
 Lost at sea..... 63,462
 Corrections..... 57,132— 162,935

Total tonnage July 1st, 1858..... 5,049,808
 Increase during the year..... 108,965

The following will show the description of vessels built during the year :

Ships and barques, No..... 122
 Brigs..... 46
 Schooners..... 431
 Sloops and smaller craft..... 400
 Steamers..... 226

Total number built, ... 1,225

Number and tonnage of vessels built in the United States during the last 15 years.

Year ending June 30.	Number of vessels.	Tons and cwt.
1844.....	766.....	103,537 29
1845.....	1,038.....	146,018 02
1846.....	1,420.....	188,203 98
1847.....	1,598.....	243,782 67
1848.....	1,851.....	318,075 54
1849.....	1,547.....	250,577 47
1850.....	1,360.....	272,218 54
1851.....	1,367.....	298,208 60
1852.....	1,444.....	351,498 41
1853.....	1,710.....	425,572 49
1854.....	1,774.....	535,616 01
1855.....	2,054.....	583,450 04
1856.....	1,703.....	409,393 78
1857.....	1,431.....	373,304 70
1858.....	1,225.....	242,236 69

7.—TRADE OF BALTIMORE.

The Baltimore American published in a supplemental sheet, at the commencement of the year, a complete statement of the trade and commerce of that city during the year 1858. This statement shows that within the time named the trade of the city considerably exceeded a hundred millions of dollars. We cite the principal items :

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Boots and shoes.....	3,650,000	Leather.....	1,800,000
Books and paper.....	8,000,000	Live stock.....	4,174,000
Coal.....	8,060,000	Lumber.....	1,500,000
Clothing.....	6,500,000	Molasses.....	900,000
Copper.....	2,000,000	Naval stores.....	258,000
Cotton.....	2,325,000	Oysters.....	4,000,000
Coffee.....	3,900,000	Provisions.....	5,000,000
Drugs, paints, &c.....	1,500,000	Piano trade.....	328,000
Dry goods.....	30,000,000	Salt.....	88,000
Earthen ware.....	1,000,000	Sugar.....	6,000,000
Fish.....	280,000	Tobacco and cigars.....	4,980,000
Flour.....	5,250,000	Vessels built.....	365,000
Grain.....	5,300,000	Whiskey.....	1,670,000
Grano.....	1,000,000	Wool.....	875,000
Hardware.....	5,000,000		
Iron.....	2,000,000	Total.....	108,000,000

8.—THE FISHERIES.

The whale fisheries of the North still continue to show evidence of decline. The whole number of vessels now employed is, 560 ships, 19 brigs, 45 schooners. We learn from the *Whaleman's Shipping List* the following :

Ships and Barks.	Tonnage	Ships and Barks.	Tonnage
New-Bedford.....	816.....107,931	Orleans.....	1.....538
Fairhaven.....	45.....16,144	Beverly.....	2.....595
Westport.....	18.....4,233	New-Haven.....	1.....567
Dartmouth.....	10.....2,807	Fall River.....	2.....490
Mattapoisett.....	13.....3,654	Holmes' Hole.....	1.....420
Sippican.....	—.....698	Nalem.....	1.....216
Wareham.....	1.....373	Sandwich.....	1.....165
Dis. of New-Bedford.....	403.....135,841		
New-London.....	43.....16,755	Total, Jan. 1, 1859.....	561*.....195,115
Nantucket.....	30.....11,037	Showing a diminution of 26 ships and barks	
Sag Harbor.....	16.....5,956	and 4 schooners; an addition of one brig, and	
Edgartown.....	16.....5,696	a diminution of 8,633 tons. Of the above is	
Warren.....	15.....4,851	owned in the States of—	
Provincetown.....	5.....3,099		
Mystic.....	6.....2,040	Ships and Barks. Brigs. Schns. Tonnage	
Greenport.....	4.....1,657	Massachusetts.....	465.....14.....32.....159,303
Cold Spring.....	4.....1,606	Connecticut.....	54.....3.....11.....20,756
Stonington.....	4.....1,394	New-York.....	24.....2.....2.....9,219
Falmouth.....	3.....1,100	Rhode Island.....	19.....—.....—.....5,837
Newport.....	3.....986	Total.....	561.....19.....45.....195,115

* The aggregate tonnage includes 19 Brigs and 45 Schooners, distributed between the ports.

9.—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The following table from the New-York Economist, will show the decline in importations of Dry Goods during last year :

	Woolens.	Cottons.	Silks.	Flax.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
1849.....	\$11,983,279	\$6,519,072	\$15,295,753	\$4,756,561	\$3,959,210	\$45,514,775
1850.....	16,565,016	11,038,395	20,281,034	7,562,941	2,292,437	58,322,823
1851.....	15,252,028	11,027,938	23,486,456	6,749,818	4,110,163	60,626,400
1852.....	16,172,991	11,389,858	22,944,503	7,103,887	4,644,017	62,304,261
1853.....	28,304,146	16,808,353	34,128,519	8,790,135	5,766,904	93,499,096
1854.....	21,894,346	15,610,143	27,590,393	7,258,032	5,805,910	78,157,373
1855.....	19,157,015	11,274,221	23,478,460	6,924,635	5,068,365	66,902,691
1856.....	20,185,825	12,901,155	29,730,519	8,772,322	7,208,502	88,927,453
1857.....	24,338,403	17,480,562	27,691,987	6,938,737	6,676,836	82,676,825
1858.....	21,124,303	13,567,943	20,381,736	7,008,036	4,914,523	69,093,705

10.—IMPORTS INTO NEW-YORK—DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN.

JAN.—DEC., 1858.

Brandy.....	bf. pipes.....	4,207	Pepper.....	bags.....	50,29	38
".....	qr. casks and bbls.....	15,429	Pimento.....	bags.....	13,28	38
Coal.....	tons.....	253,648	Rags.....	bales.....	38,88	34
Cochineal.....	ceroons.....	1,172	Rat-ins.....	kegs.....	6,28	35
Cocoa.....	bags.....	16,852	".....	boxes and frails.....	358,40	38
Coffee.....	packages.....	567,302	".....	drums.....	2,28	38
Cotton.....	bales.....	421,538	Rice.....	tierces.....	71,7	78
Earthenware.....	packages.....	23,275	Rum.....	punchoons.....	3,00	78
Figs.....			Salt.....	busbels.....	2,787,00	77
Gin.....	pipes.....	13,064	Saltpetre and Nit Soda.....	bags.....	34,9	77
Hemp.....	bales.....	100,510	Sugars.....	hogsheds.....	261,2	77
".....	tons.....	252	".....	tierces.....	7	77
Hides.....	bales.....	3,909	".....	barrels.....	48,5	77
".....	No.....	1,909,534	".....	boxes.....	188,5	77
Iron—Bar.....	tons.....	24,321	".....	bags.....	71,8	77
" Pig.....	tons.....	26,603	Spelter.....	plates.....	304,	77
" Sheet, &c.....	bundles.....	463,029	Tin—Banta, &c.....	pigs.....	45	77
Indigo.....	cases.....	1,563	" Plates.....	boxes.....	268	77
".....	ceroons.....	662	Tobacco.....	hogsheds.....	10	77
Lead.....	pigs.....	343,568	".....	bales and ceroons.....	77	77
Linseed Oil.....	casks.....	2,422	Wines.....	butts and pipes.....	340	77
Molasses.....	hogsheds.....	68,673	".....	hogsheds & half p pes.....	204	77
".....	tierces.....	4,509	".....	quarter casks.....	160	77
".....	barrels.....	77,276	".....	barrels.....	1,008	77
Olive Oil.....	casks.....	1,861	".....	boxes.....	7	77
".....	boxes and baskets.....	52,280	Wool.....	bales.....	2,011	77

11.—OUR COMMERCE WITH BRAZIL.

It is well known that whilst we import an average of \$15,000,000 from Brazil, she takes in turn from us but about \$4,000,000 merchandise, owing to the restrictive system which is in vogue there. In a late number of the Review, (1857) we showed this very clearly.

Years.	Imports from Brazil to U. S.	Exports from U. S. to Brazil.
1831-1840 ..	\$47,274,000	\$24,710,900
1841-1850 ..	69,510,000	29,326,000
1851-1857 ..	108,620,000	29,909,000
Total.....	\$225,416,000	\$83,945,000

The main item of importation is Coffee, which has risen in value from \$5,802,000 in 1844 to \$10,329,000 in 1854, and in 1858, viz:

Year.	Pounds.	Value.	Av. Price.
1844.....	95,291,000	\$5,802,000	\$6 25
1845.....	78,553,000	4,401,000	5 60
1846.....	97,533,000	5,964,000	6 11
1847.....	94,916,000	5,673,000	5 75
1848.....	110,027,000	5,909,000	5 25
1849.....	122,581,000	6,776,000	5 50
1850.....	90,319,000	7,422,000	8 20
1851.....	107,578,000	8,881,000	8 25
1852.....	135,156,000	10,064,000	7 25
1853.....	153,278,000	11,844,000	7 75
1854.....	116,794,000	10,330,000	8 75
1857.....	197,224,000	17,981,000	8 10

12.—FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY.

The mercantile agency of J. D. Pratt & Co., Baltimore, have issued a report which contains the following statistics, and which they preface with these remarks:

The result of this carefully prepared analysis will, we think, justify us in assuming, that there is ground for congratulation in the present aspect of commercial affairs. It is somewhat checkered, it is true, but encouragement is the prevailing feature; indeed were it less so, we should have abundant cause for thankfulness, when we consider the severe trials we have passed through. The conclusion is justifiable that we shall have a safe, if not an extensive trade, this

year; and that the country at large needs but one or two good crops more from the hands of a bountiful Providence, to place us in a good position, pecuniarily, as the panic found us occupying, with the additional advantage of a valuable lesson from its infliction.

LOCATION.	No. of failures in 1857.	No. of failures in 1858.	Total amount of liabilities in 1857.	Total amount of liabilities in 1858.
New-York—New-York city (including Brooklyn and Williamsburgh).....	915	406	\$135,129,000	\$17,773,462
Albany.....	35	22	838,000	345,708
Buffalo.....	72	36	4,224,000	599,940
Oswego.....	13	8	161,000	93,600
Rochester.....	31	15	850,000	345,000
Syracuse.....	29	19	436,000	408,500
Troy.....	24	10	1,607,000	275,570
Utica.....	20	10	585,000	212,220
Balance of the State.....	447	340	6,789,000	4,315,620
Pennsylvania—Philadelphia.....	280	109	32,954,000	10,002,385
Pittsburg.....	28	22	1,183,000	610,742
Balance of the State.....	226	232	2,283,000	4,047,656
Ohio—Cincinnati.....	96	51	3,898,000	1,345,533
Cleveland.....	30	17	613,000	255,000
Balance of the State.....	220	214	2,357,000	1,672,838
Indiana.....	139	127	1,636,000	1,154,684
Michigan—Detroit.....	34	27	1,514,000	1,047,924
Balance of the State.....	98	120	1,004,000	1,731,480
Illinois—Chicago.....	117	87	6,572,000	3,500,664
Balance of the State.....	199	305	2,766,000	4,978,210
Iowa—Dubuque.....	36	26	735,000	827,058
Balance of the State.....	108	94	1,333,000	2,196,122
Wisconsin—Milwaukee.....	19	21	380,000	314,475
Balance of the State.....	101	137	1,244,000	2,435,723
Minnesota and Territories.....	63	90	1,705,000	1,365,840
Delaware and Dis. Columbia.....	20	46	261,000	277,150
Massachusetts—Boston.....	253	123	41,010,000	4,178,925
Balance of the State.....	230	128	2,611,000	1,937,792
Rhode Island—Providence.....	35	17	4,564,000	374,000
Balance of the State.....	4	13	105,000	373,923
Connecticut.....	61	89	1,129,000	2,213,430
Maine.....	81	61	1,060,000	646,051
New-Hampshire.....	70	37	928,000	403,152
Vermont.....	57	40	473,000	278,720
New-Jersey.....	86	60	1,142,000	775,800
Louisiana—New-Orleans.....	58	45	6,285,000	3,465,000
Balance of the State.....	5	13	246,000	341,900
Missouri—St. Louis.....	49	22	5,522,000	782,980
Balance of the State.....	29	29	433,000	609,000
Maryland—Baltimore.....	58	76	3,266,000	2,442,640
Balance of the State.....	41	92	725,000	520,996
Kentucky—Louisville.....	19	18	757,000	555,462
Balance of the State.....	31	62	1,007,000	682,000
Virginia—Richmond.....	30	25	781,000	499,125
Balance of the State.....	90	244	982,000	2,183,800
Georgia.....	32	71	925,000	1,415,243
Arkansas.....	7	17	309,000	739,500
Alabama.....	16	48	225,000	2,038,752
Mississippi.....	11	36	445,000	1,653,000
Tennessee.....	40	103	712,000	1,597,015
Texas.....	15	28	393,000	467,432
North Carolina.....	62	90	1,171,000	1,499,400
South Carolina—Charleston.....	31	20	922,000	578,180
Balance of the State.....	24	21	305,000	249,900
Florida.....	7	6	250,000	142,440
Total—United States.....	4,932	4,223	291,750,000	95,749,662
Canada West—Toronto.....	25	16	2,714,000	383,376
Balance of Canada West.....	109	211	2,172,000	1,305,879
Canada East—Montreal.....	15	40	523,000	1,110,040
Balance of Canada East.....	15	22	1,267,000	616,570
Nova Scotia and New-Brunswick.....	22	23	1,375,000	1,021,844
Total U. S. and Brit. Prov.....	5,118	4,537	\$299,801,000	\$106,187,571

13.—COMMERCE OF HAVANA, 1858.

The Savannah Republican thus translates from the *Diario de la Marina*:

There arrived in the port of Havana for the year 1858, 132 American merchant steamers, against 167 in 1857. Sailed in same time 130, against 165 in 1857.

The number of passengers arrived from the United States in 1858 was 4,887, against 4,887 in 1857. The total number of passengers from all points was 81,555.

The number of vessels touching at the port of Havana in 1858 was 958, against 909 vessels, of 406,873 tons, in 1857. Vessels from all points during the year, 1949, of 679,815 tons, against 1,953, of 690,866 tons, in 1857.

The total exports of Sugar from Havana and Mantanzas, for the year 1858 was 1,268,150 boxes, against 1,116,696 boxes in 1857; of which to the United States 849,185 boxes, against 802,112 boxes in 1857.

Total exports of Coffee from Havana in 1858, 20,483 arrobas, (25 lbs.), against 19,609 arrobas in 1857; of which to the United States 7,734 arrobas, against 819 arrobas in 1857.

Total exports of Molasses from Havana in 1858, 21,545 hhds., against 30,16 hhds. in 1857; of which 18,765 to the United States, against 23,804 in 1857.

Total exports of Rum for the year, 18,415 pipes, against 14,058 in 1857; of which to the United States 919 pipes, against 250 pipes in 1857.

Total exports of Cigars 106,231,000, against 146,720,000 in 1857. Of unmanufactured Tobacco 5,046,896 lbs., against 3,590,185 lbs. in 1857.

Total exports of Honey 1,679 tierces, against 1,640 in 1857; of which to the United States 234 tierces, against 264 tierces in 1857.

Total exports of Wax 37,016 arrobas, against 49,732 arrobas in 1857; of which to the United States 373 arrobas, against 80 arrobas in 1857.

Total imports of Rice for the year—from the United States 76,877 quintals (100 lbs.); from Spain 72,486 quintals, and from India 115,273 quintals.

14.—COMMERCE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The Revenues collected in Great Britain in 1857, on imports, reached \$115,000,000, of which Tobacco furnished \$25,000,000.

The value of the imports for the year 1857, reached the enormous amount of \$939,222,203; and the exports amounted to \$738,871,505. Of the imports \$708,806,225 came from foreign countries, and \$230,915,980 from the colonies. Of the exports, \$610,330,535 was of the produce of the United Kingdom, and \$120,540,970, the value of the foreign and colonial goods exported from the country.

These exports were distributed as follows:

United States.....	\$92,764,285	Cape of Good Hope colony.....	10,000,000
East Indies.....	58,333,570	Turkey.....	9,406,940
Australia.....	48,899,975	Prussia.....	8,705,320
Hanse Towns.....	47,979,810	China.....	8,648,000
France.....	31,921,970	Belgium.....	8,036,000
Holland.....	31,060,790	Hanover.....	8,188,770
Brazil.....	27,708,550	Portugal.....	7,391,000
Austria.....	15,567,000	Cuba.....	6,761,000
Russia.....	15,000,000	Chili.....	6,435,000
Canada.....	12,339,000	Peru.....	5,868,000
West Indies.....	11,500,000	Sicily.....	5,592,770
Spain.....	10,002,040	Sardinia.....	5,444,000

15.—THE BANKING SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

Again we are in the midst of a general inflation, and are experiencing the benefit of what may be believed to be at present a healthful reaction against the panic of 1857-'8. The country is undoubtedly prosperous in all its department of industry. The Southwest in particular was never more so, and with high prices of staples, lands and negroes are daily on the rise. The Bank statement are also favorable. The following is from the "New-York Courier and Enquirer."

We give the following exhibit, showing the condition of the Banks of the

United States, for a series of years. These are all made up from official sources, with the exception of the Loans and Deposits in Jan., 1869.

Years.	Banks.	Capital.	Discounts.
January, 1834.....	506	\$200,605,944	\$324,119,490
" 1836.....	713	251,875,292	457,506,080
" 1837.....	788	270,772,091	525,115,702
" 1843.....	691	228,861,948	251,544,937
" 1848.....	761	204,833,175	344,470,582
" 1851.....	879	227,807,553	413,756,790
" 1854.....	1,208	301,376,071	557,397,779
" 1855.....	1,307	332,177,288	576,144,758
" 1856.....	1,398	343,874,272	634,183,280
" 1857.....	1,416	370,834,686	684,456,687
" 1858.....	1,422	394,622,799	583,622,799
" 1859.....	1,570	398,963,700	610,000,000

Years.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January, 1834.....	\$26,641,753	\$94,839,570	\$75,660,986
" 1836.....	40,019,594	149,185,890	127,397,185
" 1837.....	37,915,340	149,198,895	725,397,187
" 1843.....	33,515,806	58,563,608	56,168,028
" 1848.....	46,369,765	128,506,091	103,226,177
" 1851.....	48,671,048	155,165,251	128,957,742
" 1854.....	59,410,253	204,689,309	188,188,744
" 1855.....	53,944,545	186,952,223	190,400,342
" 1856.....	50,314,063	195,747,950	212,705,666
" 1857.....	58,369,838	214,778,822	230,351,352
" 1858.....	74,412,832	155,208,344	185,932,049

The following table shows the number of Banks, Capital, Specie, and Currency, in each State, made up to January 1st, 1869:

State.	Banks.	Capital.	Specie.	Circulation.
Maine.....	69	\$7,439,200	\$600,000	\$5,000,000
New-Hampshire.....	52	5,041,000	300,000	3,100,000
Vermont.....	41	3,800,000	200,000	3,700,000
Massachusetts.....	176	62,553,000	11,500,000	21,000,000
Rhode Island.....	92	20,302,700	660,000	3,400,000
Connecticut.....	71	20,881,700	1,000,000	9,540,000
New-York.....	298	105,800,000	29,500,000	26,400,000
New-Jersey.....	48	7,345,100	900,000	3,700,000
Pennsylvania.....	80	25,627,000	9,500,000	13,000,000
Delaware.....	12	1,740,000	250,000	1,000,000
Maryland.....	30	12,150,000	3,900,000	4,700,000
District of Columbia.....	5	1,280,000	300,000	350,000
Virginia.....	66	14,940,000	4,000,000	12,000,000
North Carolina.....	29	6,591,000	1,500,000	4,500,000
South Carolina.....	20	14,888,000	3,500,000	7,600,000
Georgia.....	67	10,430,000	1,500,000	5,000,000
Alabama.....	7	3,750,000	2,000,000	4,000,000
Illinois.....	59	7,000,000	630,000	6,200,000
Indiana.....	40	3,852,000	1,270,000	3,343,000
Iowa.....	8	413,000	200,000	200,000
Kansas.....	1	52,000	10,000	20,000
Kentucky.....	43	13,030,000	1,000,000	13,500,000
Louisiana.....	18	10,557,000	16,500,000	9,600,000
Michigan.....	5	1,200,000	350,000	1,000,000
Minnesota.....	1	25,000	5,000	25,000
Mississippi.....	4	836,000	50,000	1,000,000
Missouri.....	20	7,050,000	1,500,000	1,300,000
Nebraska.....	6	400,000	100,000	300,000
Ohio.....	53	5,414,000	1,270,000	6,400,000
Tennessee.....	50	10,470,000	2,000,000	3,500,000
Wisconsin.....	100	8,060,000	553,000	4,200,000
Total.....	1,570	\$398,963,700	\$99,905,000	\$180,575,000

16.—TOBACCO TRADE OF RICHMOND, VA.

The total receipts of tobacco at Richmond during the last commercial year, as reported for the *Whig*, were 51,868 hhds.

In 1857.....	38,748
In 1856.....	40,160

Of which the conclusive exports were 6,517 hhds., viz.:

To New-York.....	2,222
To Philadelphia.....	151
To Baltimore.....	4,144

Foreign Exports.

The following is a carefully prepared comparative statement of the exports of tobacco, from Richmond, direct to foreign ports, during the month of September last, and for the four years ending 30th September:

The amount of the tobacco and stems exported from Richmond, for the past four years, is recorded at the custom-house, in that city, as follows:

	Sept. 1858.	1857-'58.	1856-'57.	1855-'56.	1854-'55.
To Antwerp.....		1,847			
To Bordeaux.....		1,145	1,556	511	1,457
To Bremen.....	519	4,685	3,360	4,215	2,457
To Bristol.....		997	538	483	421
To Dublin.....	521	521			
To Genoa.....	240	240	700	406	
To Glasgow.....					307
To Havre.....	1,798	2,775	2,102	1,852	3,021
To Leith.....				384	
To Liverpool.....	1,749	5,832	4,253	3,968	3,972
To London.....		1,901	1,722	2,117	1,649
To Marseilles.....		603	550	760	1,149
To Porto Rico.....			6	2	
To Rotterdam.....		581		802	478
To Venice.....	667	5,962	5,206	3,266	3,245
Total hhds.....	5,488	27,129	20,143	18,758	18,536

The value of the tobacco and stems exported from Richmond, for the past four years, is recorded at the custom-house, in that city, as follows:

Quarters ending	1854-'55.	1855-'56.	1856-'57.	1857-'58.
December 31st..	\$579,048	\$221,478	\$808,358	\$558,964
March 31st.....	48,571	25,010	279,587	68,192
June 30.....	411,947	351,612	764,682	812,943
September 30th	1,895,832	2,256,413	2,649,605	2,913,511
Totals.....	\$2,931,408	\$2,855,508	\$4,496,882	\$4,348,600

17.—COAST SURVEYS.

There having been some complaint about the cost of our Coast Survey, we present the following comparison of the cost of the U. S. Coast Survey with foreign coast surveys; and comparison of the cost and progress during twelve years previous to 1844, with cost and progress during the last twelve years under the present organization, taken from the *Boston Post*:

The trigonometric and hydrographic surveys of England, Ireland, and Scotland have been in progress since 1791. The trigonometric survey had cost, up to 1856, \$12,000,000, and \$8,000,000 more are required to complete it. The hydrographic survey, which is an independent survey, has cost in the last twenty years \$10,000,000. Total cost of land work and hydrography, \$22,000,000. This is

exclusive of \$17,000,000 expended since 1837 for parish maps, and exclusive also of the British foreign hydrography.

France has been engaged nearly one hundred years on her trigonometrical survey; besides which she has expended in her hydrography alone, since 1884, \$4,300,000.

The surveys of England, France, Germany, and Russia, cost, per square acre, from nine to twelve cents. The cost of the land work of the United States Coast Survey is only one fifth of this amount per square acre.

While England has expended \$10,000,000 since 1836 on her hydrography alone, and France \$4,300,000, the United States Coast Survey land work and hydrography has only cost, up to the present time, \$4,500,000. The English land work and hydrography have cost \$22,000,000 up to the present time.

The length of the whole English coast is 4,400 miles; that of the French coast 600 miles; and of the coast of the United States, nearly three times the length of the English and French coasts together.

The English employ over three thousand persons on their land work alone, while the land work of the coast of the United States does not employ as many hundreds of persons. There have been engaged on the new map of France 2,500 persons, men of education, since its commencement, besides the laborers. The advantage of the United States Coast Survey is its very efficient organization which has been recently spoken of in Europe as the most perfect of modern times.

The work of the last twelve years may be compared with the previous twelve years as follows:

The expenditures for the twelve years previous to 1844 amounted to \$766,000, and Mr. Hassler operated from only one base. Since that time the length of coast has been more than doubled by the admission of Texas and the acquisition of California, and the operations are carried on now from eleven bases. The expenditures during the last twelve years have been four times the expenditures for the previous twelve years, but while the expenditures have been increased by about 33 per cent. yearly, the amount of work done has been increased by about 55 per cent. yearly. The following examples of statistics will illustrate this point:

	12 yrs. prev. to 1844.	12 yrs. after 1844.
Land surveyed by triangulation, square miles.....	9,000	30,000
Soundings.....	808,000	3,574,000
Miles of shore surveyed by the plain table.....	7,500	27,500
Astronomical stations occupied.....	9	109
Base lines measured.....	3-19 mls.	59-153 mls.
Magnetic stations.....	0	183
Tidal stations.....	127	900
Total number volumes of original observations previous to 1844 and since.....	566	9,051
Complete maps engraved previous to 1844 and since.....	5	61
Preliminary charts previous to 1844 and since.....	0	276
Printed copies of maps distributed since 1844.....		66,576

The amount of office work done in the last twelve years is estimated from the statistics to be eighteen times the amount executed the previous twelve years.

Taking all this work into account, while the increase in expenditures, supposing it to have been gradual, has been 33 per cent., and the extent of the coast doubled, the gain in economy has been about 55 per cent.

And it should be remembered that, in making this calculation, the cost of labor and material on the Atlantic Coast the last twelve years has been much higher than the preceding twelve years.

By the report of the New-York Underwriters, it would appear that the losses from shipwrecks, &c., on our coast amounted to,

In 1854.....	\$25,000,000
1855.....	15,860,000
1856.....	22,100,000
1857.....	20,000,000
In 1844 the value of our foreign imports was.....	\$108,000,000
1854.....	304,000,000

The object of the Coast Survey is the protection of this commerce. Ought its efficiency to be imperiled by attacks which have originated in personal difficulties with the superintendent?

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

1.—UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH.

It must be gratifying to the friends of Southern progress everywhere, to learn that the movement for establishing a great central University among us, is likely to be eminently successful. Already subscriptions, ranging in amount from \$500 to \$20,000, are made by liberal and public-spirited citizens in the several States, and if the appeal is brought to every Southern home and hearth, we have no doubt that a million or a million and a half of dollars will be obtained in the course of two or three years. Let the ladies, who are ever potential, take up this cause. Is there no "Southern Matron" to arise here in response to the call? We believe there will be such in every neighborhood. The work is a noble one.

Though established under the auspices of the Episcopal Church, there will be nothing sectarian, or limited, in the character of the University, as its character and the declarations of its friends will show.

There are in the Southern States about 100,000 cotton planters alone, and if only one in one hundred of them would contribute one thousand dollars, enough would be obtained to put the Institution at once upon the most substantial basis.

It is only the *interest* of the amount subscribed that can ever be used for the purposes of the University, the principal being placed in the hands of trustees for each State, to be invested as a permanent and inalienable fund.

Let all, however, read the address, which we give entire, with our own divisions, and then decide for themselves how much they will contribute. It will ever afford us the greatest pleasure to aid this movement.

LOCATION OF THE UNIVERSITY.

The selection of Sewanee as the site of our projected Institution, was not made, in the first instance, without the maturest deliberation. At the meeting held in July, 1857, at the Lookout Mountain, a Committee of Location was appointed, consisting of one Trustee from each Diocese, whose business it was made to examine all the suggested localities and to report to a meeting to be held at Montgomery in November, 1857, with the full understanding that the Board would then and there decide this important question of location. Having examined, personally, such proposed sites as their other duties would permit, the Committee of Location requested Col. Walter Gwynn, of the Blue Ridge Railroad, to organize a corps of civil engineers, with instructions to examine minutely every locality which might desire to present its claims, and called attention, through a series of questions prepared with great judgment by its Chairman, to the points deemed most important in the settlement of the question. To the meeting held in Montgomery, in November, 1857, this Corps of Engineers reported in full, laying before the Board accurate, because scientific, information upon all the points material to a final judgment in the premises. Gentlemen sent up as delegates from these respective localities were examined minutely as to their healthfulness, their accessibility, climate, water, building materials, and centrality. Advocates from each locality were heard in detail, and were permitted to enter as fully as they pleased into the merits of their favorite sites. When these examinations were ended, such of the Trustees as

desired to speak, were heard before the Board. It was then resolved that no locality should be selected which did not receive the vote of two thirds of each order, the order of Bishops and the order of clerical and lay Trustees. After a long balloting, not unaccompanied by prayer for the Divine guidance, Sewanee was selected as combining more advantages than any locality which had been examined. Under these circumstances, it was neither a hasty nor impulsive decision to which the Board came at Montgomery, and subsequent investigation and personal examination have confirmed those who voted for it in the first instance, and have removed the objections of some who then voted against it. We feel confident that Sewanee only needs a personal inspection to satisfy most minds that it has been well and judiciously chosen for its purpose.

ITS CENTRAL SOUTHERN POSITION AND HEALTHFULNESS.

The selection of the site for the proposed University must be considered in connection with the objects which the Southern Dioceses had in view in its establishment. Apart from these, it might not be easy to prove that it was the fittest locality, but in conjunction with them, it will be found to unite more completely than any other, all the requirements of such a scheme. For this is not the feeble effort of a single Diocese, but the concentration of the patronage of ten Dioceses, extending from the southern line of Kentucky and Virginia to the western limits of Texas and Arkansas. Any locality, therefore, which would give anything like general satisfaction, must occupy a central position, inclining as much as possible toward the West, since that is the only direction in which this confederation of Dioceses can ever extend itself. This limited the Trustees, of course, to a certain range of country, outside of which it would have been a waste of time to have examined and considered any locality. But it was likewise essential that the selection should be made from that portion of the centre of these Dioceses which should offer undoubted healthfulness, upon a soil furnishing abundant supplies of freestone, water, which should afford easy communication with all parts of the confederation, and which should be surrounded by a farming country providing the necessities of life in any quantity, and at a moderate expense. These requirements still further limited the choice of the Trustees, and confined them within an area extending from Atlanta, Georgia, to McMinnville, Tennessee, as its eastern and western limits, and from Knoxville to Huntsville, Alabama, as its northern and southern limits. Within these boundaries the choice must be made, or else there would be dissatisfaction and unsuitableness.

A NEW AND DESIRABLE FEATURE.

There was yet another point to be considered, connected with the social life of the South, which demanded attention in the settlement of this question. Our citizens have, for the most part, made the summer months their period of traveling, either for pleasure or business. During these hot months their plantations, and even their city homes, are deserted, and they are scattered all the world over, from our own local Springs to Saratoga, Newport, Paris, Rome, and Naples. At this season it is inconvenient for them to have their sons returned upon their hands. They do not wish to introduce them, at that immature period of life, to the dissipated society of watering places, and when they return, during vacations from college, they desire to have them at home. For the South, the proper vacation of a University is the winter; that season when our planters, and merchants, and professional men, are surrounded by their families upon their homesteads; when the cheerful Christmas fire is burning on the hearth, and mothers, and sisters, and servants, can receive the returning student to his home, and revive within him that holy domestic feeling which may have decayed amid the scholastic isolation of a college; when he can engage in the sports which make him a true Southern man, hunting, shooting, riding; when he can mingle freely with the slaves who are in the future to be placed under his management and control. That a literary institution may give the student these precious months, it must be placed where the climate will permit him to apply himself during the hot months of summer, where intellectual labor will not be a burden, where cool nights and morning will restore the energies which have flagged under close application. *The condition of things could only be secured upon some lofty table-land, wh*

should protrude itself into the centre of the cotton-growing region, and be happily surrounded by all the other requirements of a large institution. This consideration, therefore, forced the choice of the Board within still narrower limits.

But there was likewise another point to be weighed, the question of social intercourse for the Professors and Students likely to be assembled at such a point. Could we have found within these limits a city of from fifty to one hundred thousand inhabitants, combining with the refinement of large towns the facilities which cities afford for the conduct of life, and offering the University undoubted healthfulness, the Board would probably not have hesitated in selecting that as the best location for the University. But no such city offered itself, and the question was left to be decided between the neighborhood of a small town, or the creation of a social atmosphere of its own around the University. When it was reduced to this alternative there was but little hesitation about the decision, and the Board almost unanimously agreed that it would be preferable to create a society around the University which should receive its tone from the University, and be, in a measure, dependent upon the University. To make this a matter of easy performance, some locality must be selected which should combine attractive scenery and picturesque variety, with a temperate summer climate. If these could be found, in conjunction with accessibility, with an abundance of water, with good building materials, and surrounded by a farming country, affording in plenty the necessaries of life, the Board concluded that it should have met with the locality which its circumstances demanded.

POSITION, NATURAL ADVANTAGES, SCENERY, ETC.

All these things are combined in the location which the Board has chosen at Sewanee. It lies within the limits in which the Board was circumscribed by the primary action of the Bishops at Philadelphia, being neither so far west as McMinville, nor so far south as Huntsville. It stands upon the elevated plateau of the Cumberland Mountain, about 1,900 feet above the level of the ocean, possessing a climate equivalent to that of Flat Rock, in North Carolina. It is above the level of all intermittent disease, and is abundantly blessed with the purest water, flowing from under the sandstone capping of the Cumberland Ridge. It is covered thickly with excellent timber, oak, chestnut, and walnut. It has all over it the very best building stone, and can command, by easy approach, the limestones and marbles in which Tennessee abounds. It has coal mines at its very door, opened at great cost by a wealthy company of New-York, providing fuel at very reasonable rates. There lies at its foot, connected with it by railroad, one of the richest farming countries of the West. Nothing is wanting to render it every way suitable to our purpose, and there can be no objections to it, except they arise from its being a mountain location, or from inaccessibility, or from disease.

When a lowlander hears of a mountain location, he at once conceives of a lofty peak, covered over with rugged rocks, whose summit is to be reached by severe and toilsome labor. Was this conception of his correct, he would be right in arguing that it was unwise to place a University in such a position. But the Cumberland plateau does not answer, in any particular, to this conception. It is not a series of rugged peaks, but a wide table-land, having upon its summit a level area of from two to twenty miles in width, upon which a railroad is now running for fifteen miles, and might be extended for a hundred; upon which stage roads are made as smooth and easy of grade as any in the middle counties of South Carolina or Georgia; upon which farms, county towns, and watering-places, are located, and which is as well timbered as any part of the country except the heavy river swamps. This plateau is reached by an easy ride of half an hour upon a railroad, built in the most substantial manner, and laid with a T rail, which traverses the whole extent of the University lands. In addition to this railroad, the citizens of Franklin county, which lies at the base of the lands upon which the University is to stand, have guaranteed the building of a turnpike from some point on the Chattanooga and Nashville Railroad, to the site of the University, so that we shall be connected with the lowlands at our base, by both rail and turnpike, giving the University the easy procurement of all its supplies. When

summit has been reached, there spreads out before the eye an area with just enough undulation to make it picturesque, covered with large timber, with a rich underbrush of grass, and with springs of freestone water, yielding four hundred, five hundred, and in one case one thousand gallons of water per hour. From this summit the visitor is delighted with scenes of unsurpassed beauty, with points of the mountain running in fantastic shapes into the valleys, like promontories into the ocean, with wooden slopes stretching down into the cultivated lands, and mingling the wildness of nature with the improvements of man, with fat valleys, rich in the bounties of Providence, with an almost boundless horizon, spreading away toward the far West. And these views vary at a hundred points of the University lands, for it is the peculiarity of this sandstone formation to break into gorges, and to open up new scenery at every turn. The soil, too, is capable of producing the very best vegetables, specimens of which were submitted to our inspection, and which might bear comparison with any in our city markets.

This Cumberland plateau seems to have been formed by God for the benefit and blessing of the valley of the Mississippi, and the cotton-growing regions of the Southern States. Forming the eastern limit of that immense valley, stretching, with this peculiar formation of a sandstone table-land, for one hundred miles across the State of Tennessee, easy of access at many points, it must become the summer resort of those wealthy planters, who desire to recruit their families during the summer months, and are yet unwilling to be far separated from their planting interests. The time is not distant when this whole plateau will be covered over with villas, and cottages, and watering places, and will teem with the most refined society of the South and West. This will be the place of meeting of the South and West, and Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah, will here shake hands with Mobile, New-Orleans, Nashville, and Memphis, and cement the strong bond of mutual interest with the yet stronger ones of friendship and love.

ACCESSIBILITY OF SEWANEE—A RAILROAD CENTRE.

Because, when Sewanee was chosen as the site of the University, the name was unknown, it was at once concluded that it was remote and out of the way. This is the usual reasoning of the world, and was as false in this instance as it is in most others. Sewanee, as will be seen by the accompanying map, is in connection by rail and electric telegraph with every portion of the South and West. The railroad of the Sewanee Mining Company passes by the door of the University, and five miles from it unites at Chowan with the Chattanooga and Nashville Railroad. This gives direct access, on the one hand, by rail to the capital of Tennessee, and thence by turnpike to Kentucky and Ohio, and, on the other hand, by rail to Chattanooga, there uniting with that network of roads which run through Dalton and Knoxville to Virginia, and through Atlanta to Montgomery, Columbus, Macon, Savannah, Augusta, Charleston, Columbia, S. C., Charlotte, N. C., and Wilmington. At Stevenson the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad connects with the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, which brings Sewanee into immediate contact with Memphis and Arkansas, and when the New-Orleans and Jackson Railroad (now in rapid progress) is completed, with the whole of Mississippi, West Alabama and New-Orleans. The Wills Valley Railroad also connects with the Chattanooga and Nashville Railroad, and brings North and Middle Alabama into close proximity with the University, so that instead of being out of the way, it can be reached from any and every point of the ten dioceses, Texas excepted, within forty-eight hours, and from many of the large cities, thirty hours will be sufficient for the journey. When to this is added the chain of electric telegraph, which passes the foot of the plateau, there are but few parents who might not hear within a few hours of the welfare of their children, and who might not reach them in any case of necessity, within from one to two days' travel. So far then from being remote, it is almost an equi-distant centre, not in miles perhaps, but certainly in means of communication, from the Dioceses forming the confederation.

SUMMER AND WINTER CLIMATE.

The salubrity of the climate is beyond all question. It is free from fevers of all kinds—it is above the region of cholera—the thermometrical range in summer

UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH.

exceeds 80°, and the winter climate is not nearly so severe as that of the colleges to which our sons are freely sent. One remarkable feature of the plateau is its dryness, which is evinced by the lack of lichens upon the entire absence of moss or parasites living upon humidity, and by the slow decay of the fallen timber. After a tree has fallen for years bark separates from it, it separates without any decay of either bark or wood. Pleurisy and pneumonia are almost unknown. Strict examination was made by persons having no interest in the matter, who testified, one and all, that there should be no question upon the subject of its healthfulness. But whatever the severity of the winter climate, it need not be encountered by the students. It is well known that October and November are two of the most desirable months upon these plateaus, and our vacation can be so arranged as to be over the University about the middle of December, and, allowing the usual vacation, work would not be resumed until the middle of March. This leaves but the only three months which might be too severe, and returns the students to their homes, as we said before, during the season in which their parents will be most glad to see them, and when they will keep up the habits of industry which are to be theirs in the future.

I feel almost ashamed to say anything upon the silly cry of milk sickness as has been so pertinaciously urged against this locality. Like everything instant and mysterious, it seems to be dreadful. Because nobody knows what it is, it is invested with additional horrors. It is magnified until fond imaginations imagine it to be an epidemic like yellow fever, or cholera, or small-pox, taking off its hundreds and desolating neighborhoods. But the moment you catch it, it vanishes! Even when it did exist, a generation back, it was as common as a rattlesnake bite or a spider sting. But it always goes out with population cultivation, and physicians of the highest standing assert that they have never seen a case for the last twenty years, although their practice lies all over the coves in which it is said to exist. Since the Board have come upon this, nobody has dared to mention it. It did very well for a war-cry at Secession, but at Sewanee and Beersheba, not a word is said about it. And the very best reason, because gentlemen of the highest respectability are cultivated in these coves and living in them with their families, because all the students are sent into these coves and upon these mountains to range over the summer months, and because nobody hesitates to eat freely of the beef or milk which is offered him here, and to drink the rich milk as if it was water. (Beersheba Springs, at Altamont, at Tracy City, at Chowan, at Winchester, places surround the University site,) everybody partakes, without scruple, of food that is set before him, and the residents would as soon expect arsenic in their water as poison in their milk and beef. The charge is ridiculous, and the students of the University would have about as much to fear from milk sickness as from the Indians who once roamed over these hills and ranged in these valleys.

A SOUTHERN LITERARY CENTRE.

These advantages of climate, accessibility, healthfulness, proximity to the growing region, offer to the friends of the students strong inducements to surround the University. and form, for the summer months at least, a fine home for the professors and students. These families will attract others, and as much society will be gathered about the University as shall be congenial to the young men. Every facility will be afforded by sale and lease for the building of ornamental cottages and villas around the University. It will exhibit the same aspect as West Point does in the summer, with the exception, that, besides the transient visitors who will take this place as the Southern springs and the Northern cities, there will be a much larger population spending the summer months among the mountains. There are reasons which have induced the Board of Trustees to adhere to this place of Sewanee as the fittest site for the University. They have had in view the best interests of the Institution which they are engaged to create for the benefit and blessing of the Southern States. Could they have been swayed by any mercenary or short sighted motives, inducements

any kind would have directed their attention elsewhere. But they undertook a solemn sense of the deep responsibility which rested upon them. They felt that they had volunteered to perform for the State which was to bless it for ages to come, which was to mould its future learning, which was to raise its trailing banner from the dust and stand on an equal height with those of other civilized people. If they failed, it was likely to fall with them. Its very magnitude would prevent its undertaking it, and there would be no hope of high scholarship among ourselves. We should continue to be dependants in this as in all else. We should continue to import teachers, clergymen, professional literary men from other lands. We should return nothing to the State of literature and science, and should be aliens from the commonwealth. We should leave our institutions with the stigma resting upon them, grading instead of elevating our social condition. All these consequences before us when we made our choice, and in full view of them, with a view for the elevation of our homes, with a becoming zeal for the moral improvement of our people, with a love, passing the love of woman, for the land of the free, we were willing to stake our judgments upon the selection of the time to vindicate its soundness.

APPEAL TO SOUTHERN MEN.

Call upon the men of the South to rally around us; not upon churchmen, but upon all good men and true of whatever name and profession, who undertake this thing as a Church, because there was no other way of doing it. The government of such a University must be a unit, harmonious in principles, views and feelings. But it is in no sense intended to be sectarian. Its curriculum will extend through every branch of learning and science—it will be open to students of every name and sect—its conduct will be in the very highest sense of the word. If the States could have done so, we should have let it alone. But they could not accomplish it, for we have no unity in a State Institution. It can be accomplished only by a body whose principles are settled, whose basis is immovable, whose character is permanent, whose spirit, while determined, is large and comprehensive. In our possession of these things, we have undertaken this task. We have laid forth our ideal—we have laid the foundations broad and deep. Call upon you to rally around us, and by your wealth, your counsel, your active aid, to enable us to build up a University which shall offer your sons a liberal literary culture, which shall surround your homes with the refinement of scholarship and piety, and which shall vindicate the Southern States from the charge of ignorance and barbarism.

STEPHEN ELLIOTT, D. D.,
Bishop of Georgia.

LEONIDAS POLK, D. D.,
Bishop of Louisiana.

REV. ALEXANDER GREGG,
of South Carolina.

GEORGE R. FAIRBANKS, ESQ.,
of Florida.

JOHN A. CALHOUN, ESQ.,
of Abbeville, South Carolina.

2.—UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

It is pleased to learn that this institution is now in a flourishing condition. It was incorporated in 1844, and opened in 1848. The fund devoted to its support, from public lands, independently of State aid, amounted in 1856 to \$190,000.

Prof. James H. Connelley, of Carrollton, Miss., in a letter to the *New-Orleans Delta*, says of the *working of the institution*:—The trustees could not have made a better selection to fill the law chair than the present incumbent. Gifted.

generous, genial, Professor Stearns is admired and loved by all who know him. As a writer and lecturer he has few equals in the State. Indeed, I regard him as among the most learned jurists Mississippi, or even the South, has ever produced. This may be thought by some an unwarrantable and undeserved panegyric, but those who are acquainted with his knowledge of the law will bear testimony that it is scarcely his just meed of praise. Nor do I admire his legal learning more than the noble virtues which dwell within his bosom. Inspired by a love of the profession in which he has long been a shining light, and by a desire to promote the interests of his adopted State, he left a practice far more lucrative than the chair he fills so well, to place himself in a wider field of usefulness. Affording, as this school does, facilities far superior to those found in any lawyer's office, and the candidates for the Mississippi bar facilities superior to those of any other law school in the Union, students are repairing thither from every portion of the State.

The Faculty of Arts is equal in learning and ability to that of which any college in the United States can boast. Its worthy head, President F. A. P. Barnard, is reputed, not only in America, but in Europe, as one of the first scientific men of the age, and his subordinates—each and every one—possess a reputation among the learned, worthy of the ambition of the most ambitious.

The chemical and philosophical apparatus, of the most important and costly kind, are amply sufficient to illustrate every subject of these useful sciences; while the collection of minerals, shells and fossils (amounting to nearly forty thousand in number), adequate to the illustration of the more recent and more important sciences, are unsurpassed by any college in the Western world. In short, every facility requisite to the attainment of a thorough education is now to be found in the University of Mississippi, and I hope the day is not far distant when this fact will become known far and wide throughout the South-western States—for not till then will this institution be properly appreciated.

It is, indeed, painful to know there are not a few narrow-minded individuals, here and elsewhere, who seek to detract from the rising reputation of our University; but, despite their strenuous efforts to the contrary, it moves onward upon its lofty mission. Each succeeding year brings to its halls increasing numbers of students, and such will be its destiny—rising higher and higher in public estimation—until the colossal strength of its hold upon the affections of the Southern people will silence forever the piteous howls of its enemies.

It is a mystery to me why the people of the South, and especially of Mississippi, continue to disregard the educational advantages and facilities provided in their midst, and patronize the colleges of the North.

All will acknowledge the many temptations an atmosphere polluted by the foul breath of Abolitionism throws around the Southern student—all acknowledge the safety and policy of educating the Southern youth at home—all acknowledge that the Abolition fanatics have "laughed and grown fat" at the stupidity of the South—yet they continue to send their sons afar off in these hotbeds of Abolitionism, "and still lick the hand that smites them." Why is it so? I cannot conceive unless it be they regard it as a higher honor to have it said their sons graduated "*a way off yonder*," or to have it recorded in their sons' biography that "he graduated at one of the oldest colleges," with no advantage superior to the University of Mississippi, except in *distance from home*, in age, and in numbers of alumni and under-graduates. And in those so much solicitude is not felt for imparting a thorough knowledge in the arts and sciences, as for inculcating the youth entrusted to their instruction with anti-slavery sentiments.

Text-books most condemnatory of slavery are used; professors interlard their lectures with anti-slavery dogmas, and, through their unbounded zeal, even the chapels erected and consecrated to the worship of God, are desecrated by these apostles of Higher-lawism. Under such influences the Southern youth would be liable to imbibe the political tenets repugnant to the teachings of his father, and hostile to the highest interests of his section, from which, if once deep-rooted by the fiery zeal of a corrupt fanaticism, not even the strong ties and fond associations of his boyhood, nor the thousand endearing charms which cluster around his childhood home, could dissuade him. It is a duty we owe to the memory of our fathers—a duty we owe to humanity—to be vigilant in our

endeavour to protect the institution of slavery on every side, against the attacks of the avowed fanatical Abolitionists of the North and of the double-faced traitor of the South.

"Encourage home education" should be the motto by which every Southern parent should live. At the altars of the University of Mississippi may be gained a knowledge of all those higher branches of learning which give to the mind a beauty and symmetry, develop its richest resources, and develop that culture and discipline requisite to its entering upon its high mission—the discovery of truth. No blind fanaticism finds a place within its classic walls, no dogmatical religious or political opinions are imposed upon its votaries of education: but "Minerva, Apollo, and the Muses, are its presiding Genii." Having, in its usefulness and prosperity, outstripped the expectations of its most sanguine friends, it stands like a beacon-light, shedding forth its enlightening rays throughout the South; and, from it, "the summit height of knowledge of Mississippi, intellectual light, shall radiate," until its influence shall be felt far and wide beyond the limits of our State.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—ALBEMARLE AND CHESAPEAKE CANAL.

We are indebted to the President, Marshall Parks, for a copy of the Annual Report for 1866. From it we learn that during the past year, the contractors have prosecuted the work with great energy and perseverance, having kept their force at work, night and day, at the most difficult points, in the hope of getting the whole line open by the present time. But the unforeseen difficulties arising from sunken logs and stumps, which from the first have so retarded the work, have not only continued undiminished, but in some places have been more formidable than ever: so that there still remains a small quantity of excavation to be done to complete the connection between the Albemarle and the Chesapeake. It is, however, expected that this connection will be made by the 1st of January next.

The length of the Company's line of navigation is about sixty-five miles.

Commencing in North Carolina, at the mouth of North River, a wide and deep tributary of Albemarle Sound, the line extends up that river to the canal; thence through the canal to Currituck Sound, thence northerly through Currituck Sound and up the North Landing River to the Virginia section of canal; and thence westerly through said canal to the southwest branch of Elizabeth River, in the vicinity of Norfolk.

Of this line, the length of independent canal, exclusive of improvements of natural water courses, is 14.10 miles, divided into two sections, as follows:

In N. C., from North River to Currituck Sound..... 5.65 miles.

" Va., through Great Bridge Swamp..... 8.45 "

All the residue of the line consists of natural water-courses, varying in width from 200 feet to several miles.

The distance yet to be excavated to complete the connection between the Albemarle and the Chesapeake, is 3,600 feet, or less than two thirds of a mile;* of which 1,600 feet are on the North Carolina section, and 2,000 feet on the Virginia section.

The work on the lock is so far advanced that it will undoubtedly be completed by the end of February next.

The location of this, the only lock on the line, is at the junction of the canal with the Elizabeth River. It is the largest on the Atlantic coast, and the largest but two in the United States, being 220 feet long by 40 feet wide in the clear. It is of solid cut stone masonry, from the granite quarries of Maryland, constructed in the most substantial manner, with double sets of gates, and all the improve-

* This was the distance on the 1st Nov. last.

VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

known to modern engineering. Its foundation is placed sufficiently low to draft of eight feet water at lowest tides. Its capacity is sufficient to steam propellers carrying five hundred tons, and, being merely a tide lock, it is only half the rise or fall of the tide; usually not exceeding two feet. The completion of the lock there will be a continuous channel through the line, and, if thought advisable, the line can be opened for smaller classes by the 1st of March next. And within the next twelve or fifteen months, the canal can be fully completed, and all the necessary improvement of the river sounds accomplished; so that there shall be a complete navigation with a draft of eight feet water, from the Albemarle to the Chesapeake.

2.—RAILROAD FROM CHICAGO TO NEW-ORLEANS.

It is stated that in less than a year from this time there will be a railroad connection between New-Orleans and Chicago. The whole route consists of several lines, which will make connections as follow:

Illinois Central, from Chicago to Cairo; steamboat on the Mississippi to Cairo, a little town in Kentucky, twenty miles from Cairo; the Mobile and Ohio Railroad, from Columbus, Kentucky, to Jackson, Madison county, Tenn.; the Mississippi Central and Tennessee Railroad, from Jackson to a point in Tennessee, called Grand Junction; on the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, fifty miles east of Memphis; the Mississippi Central Railroad, from this junction to Canton, Miss.; and lastly, the New-Orleans and Jackson Railroad, from Canton to New-Orleans. The only uncompleted portion of this route is a distance of seventy miles, on one portion of the Mississippi Central Road. This seventy miles is already graded, the ties, trestle work, and bridges, are progressing favorably, and the iron for the track is purchased, and is to be on the ground before the 1st of July next. The whole will probably be completed before the 1st of October, 1859. At present a line of excellent stage-coaches run over the route. The present condition of this great route, then, is as follows:

	Miles.	Hours.
Chicago to Cairo	365	18
Cairo to Columbus, by boat.....	20	2
Columbus to Jackson, Tenn.....	87	6
Jackson to Junction.....	50	3
Junction to Coffeeville.....	85	5
Coffeeville to Durand, by stage.....	70	50
Durand to Canton.....	38	2
Canton to New-Orleans.....	306	11
Total.....	911	67

3.—VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

Account showing the Receipts and Disbursements of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad Company from its organization; and its Financial Condition at the end of the fiscal year terminating June 30, 1858:

RECEIPTS.

Stock subscribed for by the State..	\$1,798,900 00
Amount unpaid.....	58,900 00
	\$1,740,000 00
Stock subscribed for by others than State..	\$1,148,800 00
Amount unpaid.....	25,201 25
	1,123,598 75
	\$2,863,598 75
Stock subscribed for by the State.....	\$500,000 00
do. by others than the State....	55,000 00
	555,000 00
Amount overpaid by stockholders.....	586 65
Amount loaned by the State, ...	\$1,000,000 00
Amount advanced by do.....	90,000 00
	1,090,000 00

Amount received for interest, etc.....	\$13,345 63
Coupon bonds bearing six per cent. interest, payable January and July.....	1,743,000 00
Received as premium.....	7,635 00
Do. for road earnings previous to Sept. 30, 1856.....	573,989 90
Do. for transportation.....	766,895 35
Do. fines against agents.....	20 00
Liabilities.....	625,786 96

\$8,240,258 24

DISBURSEMENTS.

Main Line:

Expended for graduation, masonry, etc.....	\$5,058,366 78
Expended for rolling stock, including engines and cars.....	599,366 66
Discounted in sales of bonds.....	318,874 53
Interest and exchanges.....	463,529 40
Profit and loss account.....	10,762 43
Counterfeit money, etc.....	92 00
Miscellaneous and other expenses.....	195,581 05
Repairs of road, bridges, etc.....	415,131 24
Do. cars, etc., since January 1, 1857.....	25,614 35
Expended for fuel, waste, etc., since Sept. 30, 1859.....	98,701 77
Train expenses since Sept. 30, 1856.....	84,293 63
Paid negro hires.....	36,917 17
Paid for stock killed, etc.....	11,205 66
Paid State on account of loans, etc.....	385,006 92

Branches:

Salt Works Branch.....	\$345,553 64
Montgomery Coal Branch.....	809 38
Cumberland Gap Branch.....	3,088 73
Resources.....	249,450 75
Individual subscription unpaid.....	251,582 60
Cash deposited to pay Salt Works Branch coupons, July 1, 1857.....	25,201 25
Cash on hand.....	6,120 00
	53,781 20

\$8,240,258 24

The following are the officers:

JOHN ROBIN McDANIEL, *President.*

HENRY DAVIS and JOHN M. PRESTON, *Directors on part of Stockholders.*

W. C. SMITH, *General Superintendent.*

JAS. H. BUFORD, *Resident Engineer.*

M. R. BUHANNAN, *General Land Agent.*

F. G. MORRISON, *Treasurer.*

CHAS. W. CHRISTIAN, *Auditor.*

JNO. R. HUGHES, *Pay Master.*

4.—RAILROAD ENTERPRISE BETWEEN NEW-ORLEANS AND HOUSTON, TEXAS.

Houston is the railroad centre of Texas, and Texas is large enough to make forty States like Massachusetts! It is easy to take in the full significance of this circumstance! From Houston the roads already commenced and to be undertaken, diverge to all the important points of that Empire State. At the present moment, there are two roads leading westward from Houston, one of them striking the Colorado and Columbus, and will be completed, says the *Telegraph*, to that point within the coming year; and the other striking the stream at Wharton, forty miles further down. The road to Galveston is in process of construction, and will soon be completed.

A road east, to the Sabine, is also under contract, and the work months ago commenced. The road to Columbus is to be extended to San Antonio, which is

TEHUANTEPEC RAILROAD.

direct line to El Paso. The Wharton road will become a link to connect the Arkansas road, "which is chartered to run to the Rio Grande on a line intersect there with the Great Central Transit Route, chartered by the Mexican Government, to run from the Rio Grande to Mazatlan, at the Gulf of California." Intersecting these lines, running east and west, will be roads extending down to the Gulf, and north, which, as the population increases and them necessary, will thus reach both the northern and southern portions of the State.

The distance to Houston is 366 miles. The Opelousas Railroad extends 80 miles to the Sabine Road, which is under contract, partially graded, some of the iron bought, is 96, leaving a gap from the present terminus of the Opelousas road, to the Sabine, for us to fill up, of only 160 miles, in order to have daily railroad communication with the rapidly growing and gigantic State west of us.

The following figures and facts presents a bird's-eye view of the whole question and we subjoin them from the *Houston Telegraph* :

DISTANCE FROM

New-Orleans to the Sabine.....	240 miles.
Sabine to Houston.....	96 "
Houston to Wharton.....	75 "
Wharton to Arkansas.....	100 "
Arkansas to the Rio Grande.....	160 "
Rio Grande to Mazatlan.....	540 "

Total distance.....1,321 "

which 951 miles are now under charter, 87 in operation, 50 more graded, 112 under contracts, 49 miles of iron is purchased and now being received, will make 130 in operation by the 1st of May, 1859.

This route will become the great channel for the world's business. All Europe and United States east of, and including the Mississippi Valley, will take route to the Pacific coast, and the Pacific Islands. The time from New-York may be estimated as follows, at the rate of 500 miles per day, when the are completed, which is 21 miles per hour :

New-York to New-Orleans.....	3½ days.
New-Orleans to Mazatlan.....	2½ "

Total to the Pacific.....6 "

This scheme, when carried out, will have immediate and direct connection every port of the Gulf and Atlantic coast, from Portland to the Rio Grande. *O. Bulletin*

5.—TEHUANTEPEC RAILROAD.

At a meeting of the New-Orleans Chamber of Commerce, held on Monday, 10th January, 1859, the following preamble and resolutions were unanimously adopted :

Whereas, the Louisiana Tehuantepec Company, a corporation established in the City of New-Orleans for the purpose of opening the transit across the Isthmus of that name, and thus shortening by one third the distance to our Pacific possessions, has gone into active operation, and demonstrated by several successes the unquestionable superiority and advantages of their route ; and, whereas, said company is the undisputed possessor of a valuable grant from the Mexican Government, comprising the extensive right of way across the Isthmus and the exclusive right to navigate the Coatzacoalcas river, in the maintenance of which privileges they are guaranteed by treaty between the United States and Mexico ; and,

Whereas, the opening of this inter-oceanic transit, and its speedy development and improvement, must be of lasting importance, not only to the city of New-Orleans and the State of Louisiana, but to the entire Union ; therefore, it is unanimously resolved by the Chamber of Commerce of the City of New-Orleans, That the opening of the Tehuantepec route is an enterprise which com-

tends itself in every respect to the fostering care and support of this community. That no other undertaking is fraught with such important consequences to our people, and that in view of the vast results that must follow from the control of a thoroughfare which is inevitably destined to supersede all other routes to the middle and northern Pacific, it becomes a duty of every citizen of New-Orleans to extend such liberal aid to the company as will enable it to develop in a still more striking degree the advantages of the American Isthmus.

Resolved, That it is of the highest importance that this transit should be controlled by the capital, the energy and intelligence of New-Orleans, as being the nearest and most natural starting point to the Isthmus.

Resolved, That while discarding all selfish and sectional considerations, as unworthy of an enterprise national in its aim, and in the advantages of which the whole civilized world is invited to participate, yet that holding the prize of pre-eminence so far as geographical position is concerned, New-Orleans should struggle to retain within its grasp the legitimate influence due to a preponderating representation of the stock of the Louisiana Tobacco Company.

Resolved, That said company, having opened their books of subscription, with the view of immediately commencing the construction of a railroad across the Isthmus, the completion of which will reduce the voyage from here to California to ten or eleven days, thus defying all competition, the people of New-Orleans be earnestly recommended in their own interest to accord substantial aid to an enterprise, which, perhaps more than any other, will redound to the credit, the greatness and profit of our community.

Resolved, That the foregoing preamble and resolutions be published in one or more of our city papers, as the President of the Chamber may deem proper.

SAML. H. KENNEDY, *President*.

Attest—C. J. MANSONI, *Secretary*.

6.—MOBILE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

The *Mobile Tribune* remarks as follows. We shall add to the extract the full statistics of the road in our next No.:

Knowing that any facts connected with the Mobile and Ohio Railroad will be of interest at this time, we have gathered the following particulars of the condition of the road:

In operation at Southern end.....	232 miles.
“ Northern end.....	83 “
Total in operation.....	315 “

There are about 150 miles, from West Point, Miss., to Jackson, Tennessee, all graded and ready for the rails, which, when finished, will complete the road and open up to Mobile an almost unlimited facility of railroad connection with the East, West, and North.

A contract for all the rails and fastenings required to complete the road, say 18,000 tons, was negotiated by Judge Brown, during his recent mission to London, on terms as advantageous as those granted to any American road, and the result of that negotiation (under very disadvantageous circumstances), and the concurrent settlement, by payment in 6 per cent. sterling bonds (valued as high as the 8 per cent. income bonds have averaged here), of the Company's floating debt of about \$700,000, shows signal ability on the part of the negotiator, and entitles the President to the gratitude of the stockholders and all interested in the road, and more especially the citizens of Mobile. It has opened up a new era of confidence and hope for the future, by overcoming a difficulty in the way of progress which seemed at the time he embarked in it to be almost insurmountable.

7.—FLORIDA RAILROAD.

The Secretary of the Interior has just approved a grant of 285,568 acres of the land inuring to the State of Florida under the provisions of the act of the 17th of May, 1856, to aid in the construction of that portion of the Florida Railroad extending from Fernandina, on the Atlantic, to Cedar Key, on the Gulf of Mexico. The *Washington States* says:

The road is destined to be one of the most important in the country. It is empowered by its charter to establish a line of steamers at each of the termini of the road, for the transportation of passengers and freight between those points and any desired points on the Atlantic and Gulf. It will thus connect the important ports of the Atlantic and Gulf by nearly an air-line across the neck of the Florida peninsula. For more than a year this road has been in successful operation for nearly eighty miles of its length, and we understand that by the 1st of January it will be in full operation.

A New York Company, we understand, will carry passengers from New York to Fernandina, whence they will be conveyed by rail across to Cedar Key, going thence in steamers to Tehuantepec, and from there to California.

8.—RAILROADS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The last number of the *American Railway Times* contains a series of interesting statistics concerning the different railroads of the United States. We are satisfied we can spread nothing before our readers that will be more entertaining or more useful. We proceed to give, first, says the *Lynchburg Virginian*

MILES OF RAILROAD IN EACH STATE.

Maine.....	486	Alabama.....	581
New Hampshire.....	653	Mississippi.....	604
Vermont.....	557	Louisiana.....	281
Massachusetts.....	1327	Texas.....	205
Rhode Island.....	101		
Connecticut.....	601	Gulf States.....	1671
		Arkansas.....	38
New England States.....	3725	Missouri.....	547
New-York.....	2726	Tennessee.....	875
New Jersey.....	553	Kentucky.....	498
Pennsylvania.....	2678		
Delaware.....	114	South Interior States.....	1958
Maryland.....	453	Ohio.....	2978
		Michigan.....	777
Middle Atlantic States.....	6524	Indiana.....	1937
District of Columbia.....	2	Illinois.....	2774
Virginia.....	1642	Wisconsin.....	837
North Carolina.....	693	Iowa.....	343
South Carolina.....	872	Minnesota.....	..
Georgia.....	1178		
Florida.....	198	North Interior States.....	9748
		California.....	22
South Atlantic States.....	4585		
Total, United States.....			28,238

All the Southern States, together, have 8,214 miles of railroad.

The next table shows the annual progress in our roads. In 1828 the first railroad in the United States was made, only three miles in length. Since then, it is remarkable how rapidly they have been constructed all over the Union. In thirty years we have built very nearly thirty thousand miles of railway—an average of almost a thousand miles a year. In the last three years we have averaged over two thousand miles a year—and “the end is not yet.” Here is the table of

ANNUAL PROGRESS.

Year.	Miles.	Year.	Miles.	Year.	Miles.
1828.....	3	1839.....	1,923	1850.....	7,312
1829.....	38	1840.....	2,167	1851.....	9,790
1830.....	41	1841.....	3,391	1852.....	11,631
1831.....	54	1842.....	3,877	1853.....	13,379
1832.....	181	1843.....	4,174	1854.....	19,138
1833.....	576	1844.....	4,312	1855.....	19,769
1834.....	872	1845.....	4,670	1856.....	21,069
1835.....	988	1846.....	4,836	1857.....	23,761
1836.....	1,102	1847.....	5,282	1858.....	25,968
1837.....	1,412	1848.....	5,679	1859.....	28,238
1838.....	1,843	1849.....	6,353		

RAILROAD LAND GRANTS.

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The *Times* next proceeds to give the statistics of the railroads in each State — their length and their cost. We subjoin the table for the

STATE OF VIRGINIA.

Alexandria, Loudoun and Hampshire	193		\$509,61
Baltimore and Ohio, (see Md. : 240 m. in Va.)			
Clover Hill, coal	15		299,99
Hempfield, (see Pa. : 9 m. in Va.)			
Manassas Gap	139		
Branch	9		2,843,401
Norfolk and Petersburg	80		1,453,723
Northwestern Virginia	103		5,928,754
Orange and Alexandria	88		
Warrenton Branch	9		3,010,399
Lynchburg Extension	60		
Fredericksburg and Gordonsville	45		231,573
Petersburg and Lynchburg	123		
City Point branch	10		3,786,387
Petersburg and Roanoke	59		
Gaston branch	21		1,204,115
Pittsburg and Staubenville, (see Pa. : 7 m. in Va.)			
Richmond and Danville	140		
Branch	2		3,487,584
Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac	75		1,817,179
Richmond and Petersburg	22		
Port Walthill branch	3		1,205,411
Roanoke Valley, (see N. C. : 8 m. in Va.)			
Richmond and York River	38		393,272
Seaboard and Roanoke	80		1,462,800
Virginia Central, including Blue Ridge Road	205		7,517,768
Virginia and Tennessee	204		
Branches	10		6,765,155
Winchester and Potomac	32		575,485
Washington and Alexandria	6		150,000
Sundry coal railroads, not otherwise accounted for	30	..	300,000
	1776		\$42,670,674

It is proper to say that some of the roads enumerated in the above list are not yet finished—though they are all in process of construction. Thus, the Lynchburg extension of the Orange road, though not finished yet, will be completed during the present year. The Fredericksburg and Gordonsville road has been graded, but the track has not been laid. So, also, with the Richmond and York River road.

If the figures given by the *Times* be correct, it will be seen that Virginia has expended upward of forty millions of dollars in railway improvements. Probably about one half of this has been subscribed by the Commonwealth, and one half by the citizens of the State. Except in one or two instances, the investments have not been profitable, so far as mere dividends upon stock are concerned. But in the collateral benefits which have ensued, there are no figures that can express their value. And we believe the day is not very far distant, if proper policy be pursued, when the most of our railroads will even return handsome semi-annual dividend upon their stock.

9.—RAILROAD LAND GRANTS.

VA.—The grant to this State by act of May 15, 1856, is for four roads, one to each other, traversing the State from east to west, connecting important points on the Mississippi with the Missouri river. The grant has been made by the State, and transferred to companies, the lines of route established six and fifteen mile lateral limits laid down on the official plate, and lists have been prepared.

Following is an exhibit of the length of each road under the grant, and the amount obtained for each, exclusive of suspended interferences :

	Miles.	Acres
Dubuque and Pacific Railroad	330½	1,137,143
Iowa Central Air-Line Railroad.....	438	686,523
Mississippi and Missouri Railroad.....	318	400,000
Burlington and Missouri Railroad.....	276½	252,655
	1,263	2,476,321

ALABAMA.—The grant to this State is for eleven roads and one branch, as follows:

By the act of 17th May, 1856, for one road; 3d June, 1856, for eight; 11th Aug., 1856, for one; and 3d March, 1857, for one road and branch. The Land Office have thus far acted upon the acceptance by the State of the grant for three roads and her rejection of one, viz.: that for the Memphis and Charleston. Of the three roads referred to, one is under the act of 17th May, 1856, and two under act of 3d June, 1856. The adjustment of two of them has been nearly completed. The lengths of these roads and quantities inuring to them respectively, are as follows:

	Miles.	Acres.
Alabama and Florida Railroad.....	114	398,500
Mobile and Girard Railroad.....	228½	500,000
Alabama and Tennessee Railroad.....	125½	250,000
Total.....	468	1,148,500

In addition to these, a map of the Coosa and Chattooges River Railroad has been presented, but no definite action has been had thereon.

FLORIDA.—The aforesaid act of 17th May, 1856, also makes a grant to Florida. The maps for all of the roads have been filed, except for a portion of the line of road to Tampa Bay; and the following is the length of the recognized roads and quantities of land inuring:

	Miles.	Acres.
Florida and Alabama Railroad, approved and duly certified to the State.....	45	165,687
Florida, Alabama and Gulf Central Road.....	60	*27,778
Pensacola and Georgia Railroad.....	290½	†901,000
Florida Railroad Company.....	151½	†280,000
Total.....	574½	1,374,465

LOUISIANA.—By the act of 3d June, 1856, lands were granted to this State for three roads, and by the act of 11th August, 1856, for one road.

Two of the three first mentioned have been accepted, all the official preliminary requirements have been complied with, and the adjustment thereof has so far progressed that the lists are nearly completed for approval.

The grant for the remaining road has been rejected by the State, and the withdrawn lands restored to market.

The length of recognized roads and quantities inuring to them respectively, are as follows:

	Miles.	Acres.
New-Orleans, Opelousas, and Great Western...	263	684,000
Vicksburg, Shreveport, and Texas.....	166	363,670
	429	1,047,670

WISCONSIN.—By the act of 3d June, 1856, a grant was made to this State for two lines of road, one having a branch. The routes and lateral limits have been laid down on the official plats, but as the lists have not yet been prepared for the selections, the following is submitted as an estimate merely of the probable quantities.

* Nearly completed.

† Estimated.

RAILROAD LAND GRANTS.

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	Miles.	Acres.
La Crosse and Milwaukee Railroad.....	252	725,000
St. Croix and Lake Superior Railroad.....	243	900,000
Chicago, St. Paul, and Fond du Lac Railroad, extending into Michigan, that part being treated of under that head.....	167	600,000
	662	*2,225,000

MICHIGAN.—The act of 3d June, 1856, makes a grant to this State for eight roads (roads and branches). The maps for the roads in the northern peninsula have been filed; that of but one (the Chicago, St. Paul, Fond du Lac) has been definitely acted upon and accepted, the adjustment of the grant being now in progress. Maps of all the lines in the lower peninsula, excepting the Amboy, Hilldale, Lansing, and Traverse Bay Road, have been filed and laid down on the official plats. The lists not having yet been prepared, the following are only estimates:

	Miles.	Acres.
Michigan part of the Chicago, St. Paul, and Fond du Lac Railroad.....	159	575,000
Grand Rapids and Indiana Railroad.....	183	660,000
Detroit and Milwaukee.....	107	35,000
Point Huron and Milwaukee.....	89½	15,000
Flint and Pere Marquette.....	173½	625,000
	712½	1,910,000

MISSISSIPPI.—The act of 11th August, 1856, makes a grant to the State of Mississippi of lands for four railroads, only one of which has been reported, namely, the route from Jackson eastward to the Alabama line, which, by an act of the State, has passed to the Southern Railroad Company. The map has been filed and accepted, the lateral limits of the road laid down on the official plats, and a list of the lands inuring to the State under the grant is nearly ready for approval.

MINNESOTA.—The grant by the act of 3d March, 1857, makes provision in land to aid in the construction of four roads and two branches in Minnesota. The grant has been accepted. The route of one road and its branch, and part of another and its branch, are in progress of being laid down, with their lateral limits, upon the official township plats. When this is accomplished, the work of adjustment will go on. In the meantime, the following estimates are submitted:

	Miles.	Acres.
Minnesota and Pacific Railroad (main stem).....	230	850,000
Minnesota and Pacific Railroad (branch).....	116	400,000
Minneapolis and Cedar Valley Railroad (branch)	112	150,000
	458	1,400,000

The map of the Southern Minnesota Railroad, and the Transit Railroad, being incomplete, and not finally acted upon, are excluded from this estimate.

The following summary indicates the length only, of such of the railroads as are in progress of adjustment under the legislation hereinbefore cited, with the quantities of land, part estimated, inuring to the same:

States.	Miles.	Acres.
Iowa.....	1,263	2,476,321
Alabama.....	468	1,141,297
Florida.....	547½	1,374,465
Louisiana.....	439	1,047,670
Wisconsin.....	662	2,225,000
Michigan.....	712½	1,910,000
Mississippi.....	110	200,000
Minnesota.....	458	1,400,000
	4649½	11,774,763

* The estimate in last report was upon direct lines between the termini. The present statement in this case rests upon the returns of actual survey, giving deflections to the routes necessary in consequence of difficulties encountered in the configuration of the country, and thereby increasing the length of the roads and quantity inuring.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—ADDRESS OF THE SOUTHERN LEAGUE.

No prophet's ken is needed to foresee the terrible events of the future which will follow, as certain as the night follows the day, unless this fatal compromise policy is abandoned henceforth and forever. First, the Supreme Court will be "recognized," so as to present no check to the unconstitutional action of a numerical majority—then slavery will be abolished in the arsenals, the lockyards, and the District of Columbia; to be succeeded by a prohibition of the inter-State slave trade. As we near the vortex of ruin, events will hasten. The insatiate cupidity of the North will brook no restraint, and we shall become the victims of a grinding taxation; or, perchance an edict of emancipation will thunder from the central government, should fanaticism get the better of avarice and the lust of dominion!

Let us resolve, then, to fling all suggestions of submission and compromise to the winds, and meet the issue as becomes intelligent freemen. The League proposes a *new policy* to the South; new in point of action, though often recommended, in effect, by her wisest sons; the policy of *firm, united, organized* defence; a policy which should never be sacrificed to the base behests of party expediency, or the delusive promise of temporary advantage. Organization is indispensable. Men, separate and single-handed, can achieve but little; it is only by associated and well-directed effort that great objects are accomplished. And we solemnly believe that it is only by a union of the true men of the South in one shape or another, that we can avert a fate, the most ignominious that ever befell a people.

As subsidiary to our main object, and as essential at all times, and under all circumstances to the preservation of our institutions, we propose, by discussion, by the diffusion of information in regard to our condition, and by all other legitimate means, to elevate Southern sentiment upon the subject of slavery to a still higher standard. We know that the people of the South, as a body, are sound upon this question, yet we need a sentiment that will regard the invasion of our constitutional rights as the invasion of our households—and will recognize the necessity of sustaining slavery, not only where its existence is put directly in issue, but where it is remotely concerned. We need a sentiment that, scorning all compromises, will not tolerate a resort to legerdemain or subterfuge to save an administration or a political party; and, above all, we need a sentiment that will cheer and sustain our statesmen when they strike boldly for our rights. Had public opinion in the South been thus elevated and enlightened, the policy of the League would long since have been her policy—all her rights would have been secured, and all organization in their defence idle and superfluous.

In furtherance of these objects, we have pledged ourselves to make the maintenance of the rights of the South paramount to all party obligations. To confide those rights to the exclusive keeping of any national party, is, in our judgment, to betray a confidence bordering on folly. The South must rely on herself—she cannot safely build her castles on the shifting sands of party. Admit that a party may advocate principles which, if carried out in good faith, would insure equal and exact justice to all the States; yet that party may be defeated, or, if triumphant in the elections, it may experience defections fatal to the successful carrying out of its principles. What then? Are we of the South, in view of the mighty dangers by which we are begirt, to stand with old arms, unprepared for such emergencies? Such is not the part of wisdom. The League, planting itself upon the Constitution, and demanding the quality of the South, interferes with no party which concedes and upholds that equality. It is only, when a party ignores or fails in this, that we are in antagonism with it, and in that event, we hold it to be the bounden duty of every Southern man to trample all party obligations in the dust, when they are *ought to be weighed* in the balance with the rights, and interests, and honor of these Southern States.

Men of the South, if you would preserve your institutions

"Fair and beautiful, and far
Aloof from desolation,"

and transmit them unimpaired to your posterity, you must prepare—and prepare *now*, to defend them. Repose not in false security till you are shorn of your strength—bound hand and foot, and rendered powerless for resistance. A few years more of irresolution, concession, and delay, will, in our judgment, prove inevitably fatal. Hence, we appeal to you, as you love the South, and her memories, as you prize those sacred rights, purchased by the blood of your fathers, and guaranteed by the Federal Constitution, to organize, to form associations, to put those associations into communication, to hold conventions of delegates appointed by them, and to do all else in your power as a people, to meet and repel the inroads of an insolent foe, who already vaunts his triumph, and claims your native South as a "conquered province." A wise and extended plan of defence can result only from free and patriotic counsel. The idea which the League embodies, and which it has flung forth on its banners, must prevail, or we perish as a people.

You are still advised to wait. Infatuated partisan leaders, whose narrow aspirations know no higher object than party success—no nobler reward than official spoils, would lull the sense of your wrongs and repress all efforts for resistance, lest they may be foiled in their petty schemes for personal and party aggrandizement. Shall we give ear to their selfish counsel? Shall we longer delay preparation? Shall we wait till a black republican administration is installed at the Federal Capital, till the army, the navy, the treasury, and the immense patronage of the Government, are in the hands of our enemies? It may, then, be too late. The very revenue paid by us into the Federal treasury will be used to purchase mercenaries to train the arms of the Union to awe us into submission!

The South, if true to herself, is amply able to maintain her rights. If driven to the necessity, she has the physical resources, the courage, and the statesmanship to take her stand among the nations of the earth. And while the League of United Southerners seeks to preserve the rights of the South in the Union, and seriously deprecates the causes which are tending to its dissolution, yet we believe, and are free to declare, that the election of a man to the Presidency of these United States, because of his hostility to us and our institutions, would evince such a state of opinion and feeling on the part of the Northern States, and would place us in such a condition in this government, as would render any further alliance with them ruinous and dishonorable. In that event, in view of the wrongs, insults, and outrages of the past, we at least, are willing to embark our fortunes on the open sea of disunion, and trusting to the justice of our cause, leave the issue to Heaven.

2.—CUBAN LIFE AND CAPABILITIES.

(From the letters of the Rev. Dr. Leyburn, of Philadelphia.)

PLANTATION ARRANGEMENT.—The ubiquitous Yankees, of course, could not fail to find a footing in a land where ounces of gold are so easily earned as in Cuba. Their services, too, are invaluable, especially as machinists and engineers on the sugar estates, and hence, numbers of them come hither, and some with whom we met had been here for years. Their wages are large, some of them getting as much as one hundred and fifty dollars a month and their living; but their life must be one of many discomforts, as they are on remote plantations, with little society but that of the negroes, the proprietors almost uniformly residing in Havana. On each plantation there is usually an "administrator," who has the entire superintendence of its affairs, under whom is a "mirl," or overseer, who is not unfrequently one of the blacks. The statements of the machinists and engineers, who came as passengers on our ship from Havana, differed widely as to the treatment the negroes receive. Some of them said they had light work, and were well fed and clothed, and others, that their condition is in all respects as miserable as it can be. The staple article of their food is jerked beef brought from South America, in addition to which they have rice, plantains, and sugar cane. The latter would not seem to be a very valuable item in the bill of fare, though it is said to be very nutritious. The slave trade, as is well known, is carried on on a large scale, the Can-

General, unless he is slandered; reaping an enormous revenue by winking at it. Their mode of proceeding is for several planters to unite, and send a ship to the coast of Africa, with an understanding as to what part of the coast she is to make for on her return. When she is about due small fishing vessels are sent out to intercept her, while a vigilant lookout is kept and signals are made from the shore to warn them, in case cruisers are known to be in the vicinity. The human cargo is disembarked with all dispatch, and after being concealed in the woods, in case of suspected danger, are carried off on the first opportunity, to their respective plantations.

COOLIES.—However hopeless the breaking up of the slave trade may be, by moral influences, or the police of other nations, it is not improbable that the Cooly system will, in the end, lead to its abandonment. The Coolies, indeed, do not stand the climate as well as the Africans, and in other respects are not considered as good laborers; but they require no outlay of capital, and the supply bids fair to equal the demand. Already there are at least thirty thousand on the island, and accessions are constantly arriving. The afternoon before we left, a ship came in from China, swarming with these half naked, miserable looking creatures. In Havana there are numbers of them employed as boatmen, servants, &c., and some of those we saw in the streets on Sunday had a very respectable, and even genteel appearance. Their treatment on the plantations, according to the uniform testimony we received, is much worse than that of the negroes.

The proprietor has no interest in preserving their lives or health, beyond the time for which he has secured their services, and it is no matter to him if they are turned off at the expiration of the apprenticeship with constitutions broken down by overwork and bad usage. The Coolies, however, are not always as submissive as could be desired. They have sometimes risen up against the master, and cut him to pieces. When the proprietor comes to arrest the culprit, and inquires who did it, "We all did it," is the reply of every one of them; and as he cannot afford to hang or garrote all of them, the matter usually ends here.

The Coolies thus far brought to Cuba are exclusively Chinese. The planter pays the ship that brings them seventy-five dollars for each one delivered on the plantation. They are then apprenticed to him for eight years, he paying them six dollars a month for their services. As yet, the time of but few of them has expired. Those who have become free have mostly remained here, engaging in peddling and petty traffic of various kinds. It is predicted that many of them will never get their freedom—that the planters will manage by some means to keep possession of them, the Government winking at it, of course, "for a consideration." One of the American residents said to us that if the United States do not get possession of Cuba soon, the Coolies will, as they are a sagacious people, and if they continue to increase as they have done, in a few years they will have the majority of the population.

CAPABILITIES OF CUBA.—I am no advocate for filibustering, or of any sort of annexation which implies that "might makes right;" but Cuba is worthy of a better destiny than the wretched despotism which now oppresses her. In the hands of enterprising Americans, and under the benign and elevating influence of evangelical religion, this island would be not only "the Gem of the Antilles," but of the world. The fertility of the soil is almost boundless, the labor required in raising crops is comparatively nothing, and the remuneration is well nigh fabulous. I am told that some planters, who have several estates, have an income of eight hundred thousand or a million of dollars annually. On new ground, sugar, which requires in Louisiana to be planted once in three years, will produce its annual crop for nine or ten years, so that the planter has nothing to do but to reap the harvest every year. Compared with such agricultural mines California places are small affairs. But notwithstanding these tempting proffers to man's love of money, by far the larger portion of the island is yet a wilderness. A published statement which I have seen gives only one twentieth part of it as under cultivation. Some part of this, it is true, is mountainous and untillable; but a very considerable portion is as fertile as that which yields so enormous a revenue. I understand, too, that at the stern extremity of the island there are two ports with harbors equal to that

of Havana—though for all available purposes to the Cubans, they might as well be in Africa.

In addition to the sources of agricultural wealth, there are other abundant materials wherewith an enterprising people would enrich themselves. Copper mines are already partially and productively worked; an abundance of coal lies buried in these mountains, ready to supply the fleets of steamers which rendezvous or call here, whenever any one shall dig it out and bring it to market; while the forests abound with mahogany, cedar, and other such woods as are used for furniture and the most costly fabrics. The Cuban cedar, the material of which cigar boxes are made, grows to a much greater size than our trees of the same name, the trunk sometimes reaching a diameter of three feet or upward. With its varied products and resources, and its position, the wealth of the island, great as it now is, might be multiplied ten-fold.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

[THE recent speech of Mr. Iverson, of Georgia, in the Senate of the United States, is remarkable in many respects. Neither the necessities of party, the hopes of political promotion, nor the advantages of "sage reflection," have yet been sufficient to divert him from the path of bold, daring, and fearless vindication of the South, in the Union or out of it. Beyond question there are men as good and as true as Mr. Iverson, and actuated by as honorable motives, who have taken refuge in the ranks of the conservatives, and are unable to see very clearly safety and security anywhere else but in the Union. Yet, we are forced to admit a greater congeniality of feeling with him than with any of these, however distinguished for character or ability. While the republican party of the North marches on to power, day after day and year after year, without one single reverse, we must be excused for not admitting the South to be in a position of security greater than at any other period. On the contrary, we think the danger was never so great before.]

Says Mr. Iverson: Sir, he knows but little of the workings of human nature, who supposes that the spirit of anti-slavery fanaticism which now pervades the Northern heart will stop short of its favorite and final end and aim—the universal emancipation of slavery in the United States by the operation and action of the Federal Government. When Mr. Wilberforce began the agitation of his scheme of emancipation in the British West India Islands, there was not a corporal's

guard in both Houses of the British Parliament who sympathized with him or approved the movement; and yet, in less than a quarter of a century, all England became abolitionized, and perpetrated, by a decree in Parliament, one of the most arbitrary and outrageous violations of private rights which was ever inflicted by despotic power upon peaceful and loyal subjects. And so it will be in this country. The same spirit which brought about emancipation in the British islands, will produce it here whenever the power is obtained to pass and to enforce its decrees. When the present republican party, or its legitimate successors in some other name, shall get possession of the government—when it has the President, both Houses of Congress, and the Judiciary—what will stay its hand? It cannot stand still; if it does, it dies. To live and reign, it must go on. Step by step, it will be driven onward in its mad career until slavery is abolished or the Union dissolved. One of these two things is as inevitable as death.

I know that there are men, even in the South, who, like the distinguished Senator from South Carolina, argue that slavery is stronger and safer now in the Union than it has ever been—that the South, by unity and concert, can always combine with a party at the North sufficiently strong to carry the election and control the action of the Federal Government. In my opinion, there never was a greater mistake.

Sir, there is but one path of safety for the institution of slavery in South, when this mighty No

avalanche of fanaticism and folly shall press upon us; and that path lies through separation and to a Southern confederacy. This is the great ultimate security for the rights, honor, and prosperity of the South. Sir, there are even now thousands of her sons who believe that the slave States, formed into a separate confederacy, and united under such a government as experience and wisdom would dictate, would combine elements of more political power, national prosperity, social security, and individual happiness, than any nation of ancient or modern times; and, sir, I am among the number. This is not the time or place to enter upon the discussion of this proposition; if it were, the demonstration of its truth would be easy and irresistible. But whether this be so or not; whether the Southern States would be better off in a separate confederacy, or in the present Union, one thing is certain; and that is, that no Union, or no slavery, will sooner or later be forced upon the choice of the Southern people. I do not say, sir, how or when the South will decide the question; but I will say that there is a large and growing party in many, if not in all, of the Southern States, in favor of separation now for causes already existing, as an object both of necessity and political expediency.

Col. Isaac W. Hayne, of South Carolina, will receive our thanks for his able argument (in pamphlet form), made in the case of the *slaver Echo*, at Columbia, S. C., as special counsel for the United States. It exhausts the subject for the prosecution.

A pamphlet, by James L. Baker, published under the auspices of a recent tariff convention at Philadelphia, has been forwarded to us, entitled, *Exports and Imports*. It is ingenious and specious, but it will require abilities far beyond those of Mr. Baker, to revive and establish the fallacies of the protective system, and satisfy intelligent men, in the language of the caption of one of his chapters, that "protection to one branch of industry is protection to all."

True Hydraulic Engineering Skill, is, for Louisiana, a matter of much importance, and when so many emergen-

cies may arise from the river or from the sea, we should have it always at hand. It is as necessary for protection against tides and overflows, for the development of our numberless water-courses, for draining our swamp-lands, and making them healthy and productive, as for improving the dry fields, the subsoil of which is too often filled with stagnant water and putrid humidity, injurious to vegetation and to human life.

Mons. R. Thomassy, whose name has often appeared in our pages, has become a permanent resident of Louisiana, and is giving much attention to the subject of our rivers and their overflows, our levees, embankments, and drainage, and writes often well upon the subject. He advocates, with ability, the opinion that the Mississippi itself may be used, through its copious sedimentary deposits, as a ample and abundant means of reclaiming and protecting our lowlands, and furnishes us a letter to the same effect from one of the most scientific and experienced engineers of Holland, a country in many respects similar to Louisiana. We give the letter:

Mons. R. Thomassy, at M. Thomassy's, member of the Imperial Court, Paris:

SIR: I have read with much pleasure your letter concerning the draining of marshes in Louisiana, and I agree with you on the proposed system of *colmates*.

The other system (system of *embankments*) has great difficulties, because it is an unfit system—a terrible violation of the law of nature.

Before the construction of embankments, the waters of the rivers spread themselves over a large surface, and did not rise (far from it) to the height they reach now. But soon each one built up, separately, embankments around his possessions, or some neighbors gathered together to surround their fields with a common embankment; so that separated little Polders were formed. It was only at the beginning of the fourteenth century that commissions for embankments were organized, and that the embankments were placed under a common government, and put by the Comtes or Ducs of Gueldre under their own jurisdiction or ban (whence the name of Bandyk is derived).

Firstly, the embankments were low; but, from time to time, they were elevated and enlarged. During recent years, the embankments of the Betuwe, the Wahal, and the Rhine, have been raised considerably. Works of fascines and creches in the rivers are from time to time augmented. From all this the situation of the river has, without doubt, become more injurious to the Polders. It has added to the elevation of the water, and has contributed to the great number of overflows and overflows which makes one look with anxiety to the future, however strong may be the measures adopted.

From this short historical resume, one may see clearly that the system of embankment was, from the first, a terrible error against the laws of nature, which are never violated with impunity, either by ignorance or egotism. As to the soil of Polder, it is still what it was of old, and has become from time to time, by the solid and slimy elements which the rivers carry there by their yearly inundations. In stopping these inundations, the country was deprived of the benefit which the rivers were granting anew every year. This loss was instantly accompanied with many difficulties and dangers, which were increasing as the people persevered under that bad system.

Our ancestors have shut up their country and districts in kinds of caves, as if that state of things could remain so forever without changing! In not perceiving that the countries were overflowed and enriched in advance by the mud during the winter, as well as augmented and raised up from time to time, they have caused the loss of this precious mud into the rivers, into the sea, and elsewhere, whilst their lands were sinking down each day more and more. Yes, it is already so much so that they must now turn the water several leagues distant, by a double play of windmills, to carry it up to the river as to a garret, when in former times the country was drying itself with water gates.

Although the system of embankments is still maintained, and though there are different reasons which may still compel their existence, it is, and it remains still, a dangerous system, and I prefer much more your system of colmates. But what to do now? It is too late.

I send you herewith a part of what I promised you, and in return, I recommend myself, and hope to receive, from time to time, such good advices like those you have given me.

Accept, sir, my sincere regards.

W. A. SHULTEN.

Our friend, Dr. J. Lawrence Smith, of Louisville, Kentucky, has made a report upon the subject of *Artesian Wells*, with direct reference to a new and very extraordinary one recently opened in Louisville, Kentucky, by the Messrs. Dupont, which reaches to the depth of 2,086 feet, discharges a jet of water to the height of 170 feet, and has a flow of 330 000 gallons every day. The water is ascertained to have the most valuable mineral properties, and may be used as a remedial agent in diseases of the stomach, liver, kidneys, in scrofulous affections, etc. Dr. Smith gives a brief account of several other wells, to wit, the one at Paris, and those in Bavaria, Artois, in Charleston, S. C., St. Louis, and Lafayette, Indiana. In analytical chemistry, Dr. S. has few equals.

The address of J. P. Holcombe before the Virginia State Agricultural Society, of which he sends us a copy, discusses, with many new lights, the right of the State to institute slavery. He considers

the question as one of natural law, and exhibits erudition and rhetoric. What he says in relation to the South and the Union is very beautiful:

"Mutual self-respect is the only term of association upon which either individuals or societies can or ought to live together. How long could our Union endure, if it was to be preserved by submission to a fixed policy of injustice, and acquiescence under an accumulating burthen of reproach! We are willing to give much for union. We will give territory for it; the broad acres we have already surrendered would make an empire. We will give blood for it; we have shed it freely upon every field of our country's danger and renown. We will give love for it; the confiding, the forgiving, the overflowing love of brothers and freemen. But much as we value it, we will not purchase it at the price of liberty or character."

"A union of suspicion, aversion, injustice, in which we would be banned not blessed, outlawed not protected, whether by faction under the forms of law or revolution over them I care not, has no charms for me. The Union I love, is that which our fathers formed; a Union which, when it took its place upon the majestic theatre of history, consecrated by the benedictions of patriots and freemen, and covered all over with images of fame, was a fellowship of equal and fraternal States; a Union which was established not only as a bond of strength, but as a pledge of justice and a sacrament of affection; a Union which was intended, like the arch of the heavens, to embrace, within the span of its beneficent influence, all interests and sections, and to rest oppressively or unequally upon none."

Some kind friend at St. Louis calls our attention to a passage in the article which appeared in our January number, entitled "Slavery—The Bible and the Three Thousand Parsons," reflecting upon some of the *doctrines and practices of the Roman Church*. We need scarcely say to our friend that an editor cannot be held responsible for the views of his contributors without trammeling that freedom of discussion, which is the very touchstone of all truth. In an impartial and neutral position, it is our part as frequently to receive the complaints of Protestants as of Catholics. We said in the February number, page 173, "It is our delight to set forth the "

ness of those of every faith, who illustrate, in their daily walks and avocations, Christian life, whether viewed from a Catholic or Protestant standpoint," and we repeat it here.

We acknowledge once before the receipt of Dr. Gibbs's report on the "Births, Marriages, and Deaths of South Carolina" in 1857. The tables are carefully arranged, and the facts are being better collected every year. The whole number of births recorded in 1857 was 18,920; of deaths, 11,687; of marriages, 1,589. The average fruitfulness of the slave population of the State is about double that of the white, and is 5 per cent. above that of the blacks of Kentucky, and 18 per cent. above those of Connecticut:

"It appears," says the Registrar, "that in spite of the removal from our State, in the last few years, of a large number of slaves, the black population must have increased in a much higher ratio than the white, in our own State, or the black in Kentucky, on account of their greater adaptation to our climate, &c. Such being the case, of course the returns of slaves would be larger, and would indicate both a higher mortality and greater fruitfulness, the calculations being made by the enumeration of the population which was made seven years since."

We are happy to find so many evidences of prosperity in the "*Southern Citizen*," edited by John Mitchell, and now transferred from Knoxville, Tenn., to the national capital. The terms are but \$2 per annum. The Citizen is a bold, fearless, and determined advocate of everything Southern—institutions, policy, society, law, politics, and political rights!

ANOTHER *World's Exhibition of Art and Industry* is proposed for London in 1861. We offer a hearty God speed to the movement. The incalculable benefits conferred upon the world by this and similar exhibitions in Europe and in our own country, should recommend them to the heart of every philanthropist. Let us of the United States enter with more zest into the plans of this exhibition than we did in 1851. We are yet too constrained by our swaddling clothes to vie with the Old World in influence and power and success of exhibitions. The Society for the

and Commerce, in London, have adopted the following resolutions:

1. That the institution of decennial exhibitions in London for the purpose of showing the progress made in industry and art, during each period of ten years, would tend greatly to the "encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce."

2. That the first of these exhibitions ought not to be a repetition of the exhibition of 1851, which must be considered an exceptional event, but should be an exhibition of works selected for excellence, illustrating especially the progress of industry and art, and arranged according to classes, and not countries, and that it should comprehend music and also painting, which was excluded in 1851.

3. That foreigners should be invited to exhibit on the same conditions as British exhibitors.

THANKS to the Board of Directors for the first annual report of the Mercantile Library Association of New-Orleans. The number of volumes in the library at present is 3,485. The number of newspapers and periodicals taken is, foreign 35, domestic 50—total, 85. This Association, which is of recent date among us, and appeals most loudly for the encouragement and support of the mercantile community of New-Orleans, gives evidence of great vitality. Shall New-Orleans be the only large city in America which does not liberally support an association of this kind, and will the appeal be made in vain to her citizens? In New-York, in Boston, Cincinnati, St. Louis and Charleston, the mercantile associations have long existed and prospered. It will be so among us, too, when we perform our whole duty. During the last year lectures were delivered before the Association by Dr. Brownlow, John Mitchell, Dr. Mackay, the Rev. Dr. Bolles, and Dr. Palmer.

THE death of the great historian, PRESIDENT, is an event to be deplored by the literary world. His historical labors have placed him in the same rank with Thucydides and Tacitus, Gibbon and Hume. In 1838 appeared his great work upon Ferdinand and Isabella, which was followed, in 1843, by the History of the Conquest of Mexico, in 1847 by the Conquest of Peru, in 1856 by the History of Philip the Second of Spain, which is still unfinished, three

volumes only having appeared. In order to show the difficulties through which this great man struggled in climbing the pathway of fame, and as an incentive to the rising generation, we give this letter, which was written several years since by him to a friend :

I suppose you are aware that, when in college, I received an injury in one eye which deprived me of the use of it for reading and writing. An injudicious use of the other eye, on which the burden of my studies was now wholly thrown, brought on a rheumatic inflammation which deprived me entirely of sight for some weeks. When this was restored, the eye remained in too irritable a state to be employed in reading for several years. I consequently abandoned the study of the law, upon which I had entered; and, as a man must find something to do, I determined to devote myself to letters, in which independent career I could regulate my own hours with reference to what my sight might enable me to accomplish.

I had early conceived a strong passion for historical writing, to which, perhaps, the reading of Gibbon's autobiography contributed not a little. I proposed to make myself an historian in the best sense of the term, and hoped to produce something which posterity would not willingly let die. In a memorandum book, as far back as the year 1819, I find the desire intimated; and I proposed to devote ten years of my life to the study of ancient and modern literature—chiefly the latter—and to give ten years more to some historical work. I have had the good fortune to accomplish this design pretty nearly within the limits assigned. In the Christmas of 1837 my first work, the "History of Ferdinand and Isabella," was given to the public.

During my preliminary studies in the field of general literature, my eyes gradually acquired so much strength that I was enabled to use them many hours of the day. The result of my studies at this time I was in the habit of giving in the form of essays: in public journals, chiefly in the North American, from which a number—quite large enough—have been transferred to a separate volume of Miscellaneous. Having settled on a subject for a particular history, I lost no time in collecting the materials, for which I had peculiar advantages. But, just before these materials arrived my eye had experienced so severe a strain that I enjoyed no use of it again for reading for several years. It has, indeed, never since fully recovered its strength, nor have I ever ventured to use it again by candlelight. I well remember the blank despair which I felt when my literary treasures arrived from Spain, and I saw the mine of wealth lying around me which I was forbidden to explore. I determined to see what could be done with the eyes of another. I remembered that Johnson had said, in reference to Milton, that the great poet had abandoned his projected history of England, finding it scarcely possible for a man without eyes to pursue an historical work, requiring reference to various authorities. The remark piqued me to make an attempt.

I obtained the services of a reader who knew no language but his own. I taught him to pronounce the Castilian in a manner suited, I suspect, much more to my ear than to that of a Spaniard; and we began our wearisome journey through Mariana's noble history. I can-

not even now call to mind without a smile the tedious hours in which, seated under some old trees in my country residence, we pursued our slow and melancholy way over pages which afforded no glimmering of light to him, and from which the light came dimly struggling to me through a half intelligible vocabulary. But, in a few weeks, the light became stronger, and I was cheered by the consciousness of my own improvement; and when we had toiled our way through seven quartos, I found I could understand the book when read about two thirds as fast as ordinary English. My reader's office required the more patience; he had not even this result to cheer him in his labor.

I now felt that the great difficulty could be overcome; and I obtained the services of a reader whose acquaintance with modern and ancient tongues supplied, so far as it could be supplied, the deficiency of eyesight on my part. But, though in this way I could examine various authorities, it was not easy to arrange in my mind the results of my reading, drawn from different and often contradictory accounts. To do this I dictated copious notes as I went along; and when I had read enough for a chapter—from thirty to forty and sometimes fifty pages in length—I had a mass of memoranda in my own language, which would easily bring before me at one view the fruits of my researches. These notes were carefully read to me; and while my recent studies were fresh in my recollection, I ran over the whole of my intended chapter in my mind. This process I repeated at least half a dozen times, so that when I finally put my pen to paper it ran off pretty glibly, for it was an effort of memory rather than creation. This method had the advantage of saving me from the perplexity of frequently referring to the scattered passages in the originals, and it enabled me to make the corrections in my own mind which are usually made in the manuscript, and which with my mode of writing—as I shall explain—would have much embarrassed me. Yet I must admit that this method of composition, when the chapter was very long, was somewhat too heavy a strain on the memory to be altogether recommended.

Writing presented me a difficulty even greater than reading. Thierry, the famous blind historian of the Norman Conquest, advised me to cultivate dictation; but I have usually preferred a substitute that I found in a writing case made for the blind, which I procured in London forty years since. It is a simple apparatus, often described by me for the benefit of persons whose vision is imperfect. It consists of a frame of the size of a sheet of paper, traversed by brass wires as many as lines are wanted on the page, and with a sheet of carbonated paper, such as is used for getting duplicates, pasted on the reverse side. With an ivory or agate stylus the writer traces his characters between the wires on the carbonated sheet, making indelible marks, which he cannot see, on the white page below. This treadmill operation has its defects; and I have repeatedly supposed I had accomplished a good page, and was proceeding in all the glow of composition to go ahead, when I found I had forgotten to insert a sheet of my writing paper below, that my labor had been all thrown away, and that the leaf looked as blank as myself. Notwithstanding these and other whimsical distresses of the kind, I have found my writing case my best friend in my lonely hours, and with it have written nearly all that I have sent into the world the last forty

The manuscript thus written and deciphered for it was in the nature of hieroglyphic — my secretary, was then read to me for correction, and copied off in a fair hand for the inter. All this, it may be thought, was rather a slow process, requiring the virtue of patience in all the parties concerned. But in me my eyes improved again. Before I had visited "Ferdinand and Isabella," I could use them some hours every day. And thus they are continued till within a few years, though subject to occasional interruptions, sometimes weeks and sometimes of months, when I could not look at a book. And this circumstance as well as habit, second nature, has led me to adhere still to my early method of composition. Of late years I have suffered not so much from inability of the eye as dimness of vision, and the warning comes that the end is not far distant when I must rely exclusively on the eyes of another for the prosecution of my studies. Perhaps it should be received as a warning that it is time to close them altogether.

By the Message of the Governor of Louisiana, Hon. R. C. Wickliff, we learn that the estimated expenditures of this State for the next year, for the General Fund, are for

Salaries of State officers.....	\$158,000
Reductions and commissions to Collectors of Taxes, 1858-59.....	170,000
Expenses of the General Assembly.....	90,000
Interest on the various State bonds.....	95,000
Printing.....	28,000
Charity Hospital, Insane, and Deaf and dumb Asylums.....	60,000
Charitable Institutions.....	21,000
Associates.....	35,000
Publishing Decisions of the Supreme Court.....	5,000
Refunded to owners of slaves convicted of criminal offences.....	10,000
	\$612,000
Out-standing warrants.....	124,000
	\$736,000

The State has been very liberal in her aid to railroads, as will appear by the following:

Opelousas Road.....	\$621,000
Jackson Road.....	84,000
Vicksburg Road.....	174,000
Baton Rouge Road.....	66,000

Total.....\$1,735,000

Estimate filed in the Auditor's Office of Bonds required for the year 1859.

By the New-Orleans, Opelousas and Great Western Railroad Company, 50 bonds.....	\$50,000
By the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Railroad Company, 175 bonds.....	175,000
By the Vicksburg, Shreveport, and Texas Railroad Company, 125 bonds.....	125,000
By the Baton Rouge, Grosse Tete, and Opelousas Railroad Company, 40 bonds.....	40,000

Total estimates, 388 bonds ... \$798,000

By the report of the State Engineer

of Louisiana, it seems that the State owns and employs, in its Internal Improvement department, three snag-boats, two dredge-boats, and about one hundred slaves. The expenditures of the Department last year, were:

Salary of State Engineer, and incidental Expenses of his office.....	\$13,010 96
Expenses of Internal Improvement Service.....	17,719 51
Vacherie Road.....	1,250 00
Bridge-boat, D. A. Randall.....	4,716 08
Improvement of Calcasieu.....	3,000 00
Lock on the Teche, (Act of 1858).....	2,147 16
Improvement of Atchafalaya and its tributaries.....	300 00
Rail from Grosse Tete to Atchafalaya.....	300 00
Dredge-boat for Lafourche, (Act of 1857).....	12,516 13
Total.....	\$54,960 46

The engineer, Mr. Herbert, recommends a thorough survey of the Mississippi from the northern line of the State, to the Gulf, and that a full record be made, from year to year, of all of the facts and phenomena. In regard to Red River, he says:

"The Red River would require a large force of hands and boats to remove its daily recurring obstructions. It is the most changeable stream known in the United States; and with every change brought on, either naturally or artificially, there occurs new and increased labors of improvement. If a history of the river could be obtained, for one hundred years back, it would be seen that I am correct in calling it a changeable stream. The great raft has been known to exist at Natchitoches. By natural and artificial causes its lower end has gradually been broken away, while its upper end has accumulated up stream. In this way the raft has, as it were, traveled up to its present position. During this time, lands once overflowed have become dry, and lands once dry have become lakes. For it must be apparent that the raft has been constantly acting as a dam to the waters at its different points. The present Commissioner of the Third Swamp Land District, is correct in his opinion, that some of our present Northern lakes were not lakes at all, at one time; and that they will cease to be so when the raft is removed, or works its way up the stream into Texas. The great object is to remove the raft. I again insist that this work legitimately claims assistance from the General Government; but at the same time, I am pleased to see that there is a probability that something

shall be done under the auspices of a company, chartered by the States interested."

MR. HAMILTON, *Superintendent of Public Education*, of Louisiana, states the amount expended for Schools in the past year at \$303,324 34. The number of educable children in the State is underrated at 76,508. It is recommended that \$100,000, per annum, be applied to the support of Normal Schools. In the four districts constituting New-Orleans, the number of schools is forty-one, of pupils 16,392; amount received for Public School Funds, \$231,473.

The reports of the Parish Treasurers (say the *Bulletin*) appended to the Superintendent's report, confirm everything that we have ever said as to the worthless character of our present Public School system. In some parishes no election for school directors, it appears, has taken place. In almost all others, the complaints of neglect, inefficiency, and apathy, abound. We quote a few sentences as examples:

Parish of Calcasieu.—"The Directors of every District have failed to make any report to me."

De Soto.—"Strictly speaking, there are very few Public Schools in this parish. The Directors of only four Districts reported."

Franklin.—"No election for Directors has been held. Our Public School system does not work well."

Rapides.—"The condition of the Schools is not encouraging. They are not well organized, nor can they ever be under the present system."

Natchitoches.—"I find much to disapprove of in the sheer indifference and negligence manifested by the immediate supervisors of this important trust, the Directors of the several School Districts. The fund is amply sufficient, if properly applied."

Union.—"I have not received a single report from the different School Directors. Our schools are not in a flattering condition. Directors take little or no interest in them."

Ascension.—"The character and condition of the Free Public Schools have not improved since the last report."

Winn.—"I have not been furnished with a single report from any district in the parish. The School Law, as carried out here, is all a humbug."

Acaytes.—"The Directors have made no statement."

St. Martin.—"No favorable change happened since last report."

Texas.—"I can only reiterate the defects of the present School system, mentioned in my last report. Not one really Public School."

Terrebonne.—"The system of District Directors is a clumsy, impracticable, and useless arrangement. The Directors are frequently incompetent and illiterate; they are always elected without regard to their qualifications—and when a proper person is chosen it is purely the result of a lucky accident!"

And so on to the end of the chapter. Is it

not a beautiful, creditable, useful state of things? Said we not well that the system requires, urgently requires, a thorough remodeling?

THE assessment rolls of Louisiana have been increased very greatly, and now show an aggregate amount of \$378,911,904. The taxation on this amount, at 16½ per cent., would be \$1,398,349, to which is to be added the mill tax for schools and the railroad tax. The taxable property of New-Orleans is fixed at \$98,256,720. Total debt of the State, \$10,701,641, of which the amount of \$6,322,551 is for the property banks which pay the interest, and the principal is also secured. There are 6,014,064 acres of uncultivated land in the State. The improved land is:

	Product.
In cotton 750,266 ac's.	407,418 bal.
In corn... 627,044 ..	12,094,069 bus.
In cane... 215,805 ..	{ 58,249 h.sug.
	{ 95,421 b.mo.
In rice... 4,905 ..	21,147 b.rice.
	1,597,620 ..

The Cotton Crop of the State was as follows:

PARISHES.	1857.	1856.
	Bales.	Bales.
Assumption.....	159	225
Ascension.....	308	222
Avoyelles.....	9,220	12,699
Bienville.....	6,421	5,379
Bossier.....	19,175	1,6382
Caddo.....	17,695	14,268
Calcasieu.....	108	96
Caldwell.....	3,048	3,402
Carroll.....	34,009	52,995
Catahoula.....	15,731	25,180
Claiborne.....	10,170	5,940
Concordia.....	39,112	52,068
De Soto.....	11,299	11,768
East Baton Rouge...	5,019	4,328
East Feliciana.....	14,461	14,900
Franklin.....	7,520	5,065
Iberville.....	532	1,135
Jackson.....	8,431	5,546
Lafayette.....	—	3,796
Livingston.....	669	509
Madison.....	40,867	48,423
Morehouse.....	11,771	8,463
Natchitoches.....	21,447	18,277
Ouachita.....	11,147	8,696
Pointe Coupee.....	10,914	14,056
Rapides.....	21,853	26,846
Sabine.....	2,128	2,864
St. Helena.....	2,327	2,350

PARISHES.	1857. Bales.	1856. Bales.
St. Martin.....	543	2,750
St. Tammany.....	137	86
Tensas.....	40,980	65,200
Terrebonne.....	120	163
Union.....	8,629	6,828
Vermilion.....	91	298
Washington.....	1,426	794
West Baton Rouge....	1,199	1,019
West Feliciana.....	18,167	17,986
Winn.....	1,019	940
Total.....	407,018	461,422

Quantity of Cotton raised in Louisiana:
 In 1855..... bales \$68,077
 In 1856..... " 461,422
 In 1857..... " 407,018
 In 1858, not all ginned and baled this
 27th January.

Much discussion has been elicited in regard to the true population of New-Orleans, growing out of the imperfections of recent enumerations. At the time of preparing this note, the final report has not been made. The population of the other parishes of the State is thus given from the returns for 1857-8. We shall give New-Orleans hereafter:

	White.	Slave.	Free col'd.
J. Eson.....	9,012	4,376	466
St. Charles.....	881	3,769	129
St. J. Baptist.....	2,777	4,296	320
St. James.....	3,420	7,958	119
Ascension.....	3,639	7,046	286
Assumption.....	6,869	7,368	82
Lafourche.....	7,372	6,144	135
Terrebonne.....	4,499	5,768	146
St. Mary.....	4,621	12,009	513
St. Martin.....	6,209	8,221	815
Avoyelles.....	5,495	6,152	127
Catahoula.....	4,831	5,468	47
Carroll.....	3,071	11,680	5
Madison.....	1,293	9,863	—
Tensas.....	1,255	13,285	7
Concordia.....	1,381	11,908	31
Pt. Coupee.....	3,659	11,063	742
W. Feliciana.....	1,985	10,150	68
E. Feliciana.....	3,913	9,668	46
St. Helena.....	3,308	3,108	8
Washington.....	2,910	1,551	10
St. Tammany.....	—	—	—
Livingston.....	3,998	1,297	7
E. Baton Rouge.....	6,821	8,090	429
W. Baton Rouge.....	1,060	4,522	148
Iberville.....	5,538	10,697	265
Vermilion.....	3,210	1,378	19
Lafayette.....	4,145	4,153	219
Calcasieu.....	3,457	1,069	353
St. Landry.....	11,909	12,236	1,506
Rapides.....	7,242	11,768	234
Rabine.....	5,585	1,409	—
Natchitoches.....	5,185	7,939	775
Winn.....	4,314	1,067	37
De Noto.....	4,459	7,301	23
Caddo.....	4,618	7,002	58

	White.	Slave.	Free col'd.
Bossier.....	3,646	7,195	11
Claiborne.....	9,361	6,523	5
Bienville.....	6,308	2,967	2
Jackson.....	5,220	3,963	1
Union.....	7,161	4,154	5
Morehouse.....	2,620	5,469	14
Ouachita.....	3,215	4,094	22
Caldwell.....	2,007	1,839	—
Franklin.....	2,454	2,462	—

In the New Orleans Charity Hospital 11,337 patients were admitted during the year, of whom 2,290 died. Disbursements for the year, \$70,846. In addition to the tax on passengers, theatres, balls, and concerts, now subjected to the uses of the Hospital, an appropriation of \$40,000 from the State will be required the coming year.

The increasing development and results of the New-Orleans Water Works, as shown by the receipts of this Company, are seen in the following statistics of revenues:

1837.....	\$8,818	1848.....	\$76,242
1838.....	17,027	1849.....	70,540
1839.....	27,938	1850.....	80,619
1840.....	34,622	1851.....	93,251
1841.....	44,927	1852.....	101,290
1842.....	49,344	1853.....	110,000
1843.....	49,796	1854.....	111,335
1844.....	56,687	1855.....	115,355
1845.....	58,263	1856.....	122,406
1846.....	62,868	1857.....	129,009
1847.....	70,685	1858.....	129,803
	\$181,571		\$1,140,943
			481,571
			\$1,622,414

The Report of the Board of Health of New-Orleans, prepared by the President, Dr. A. Taxson, is a very able and lucid document.

The total number of deaths in the city of New-Orleans for the year ending Dec. 31, 1858, was 11,710, distributed thus: January, 448; February, 362; March, 518; April, 482; May, 576; June, 531; July, 813; August, 1826; September, 3,069; October, 1,775; November, 834; December, 476.

The most remarkable mortality for this year was among children; under five years of age, the number of deaths was nearly 3,000. The number of young men between 20 and 30 who died also reached about 3,000. The season was one, however, of great fatality. By yellow fever:

June.....	2	September.....	2204
July.....	132	October.....	1137
August.....	1140	November.....	226

Of the deceased, 5,624 were natives of the United States, 1,891 of Ireland,

411 of Germany, 677 of France, 214 of England, 114 of Prussia, 66 of Spain, 16 of Switzerland, 50 of Scotland, and less than 50 of any other country. The nativity of 1,278 is not stated.

Of the deceased, 766 were negroes and 352 mulattoes. The slaves numbered 645, and the free negroes 475.

In sex, 7,675 were males, and 4,035 females. The adults numbered 17,133; the children 4,557.

The vast amounts which have been expended in deepening the outlets of the *Mississippi*, have been so much thrown into the sea, without any practical benefit; and at present things are in the most deplorable condition, demanding, loudly, immediate amelioration. Ships are now lying on the bar, which have been there for nearly three months.—Several years since, we published the memorial of the Chamber of Commerce of New-Orleans upon this subject, so vital to her interests, accompanied with a chart of the mouth of the river, showing, also, the number of vessels then detained, and the vast loss incurred by their owners and shippers. (See this paper, in our *Industrial Resources*, vol. ii.) The *Crescent*, of a recent date, gives the names, freight, and tonnage of a fleet of vessels on the bar, and remarks:

"Here are twenty-nine of some of the finest vessels afloat, sticking in the mud, with cargoes amounting to 63,000 bales of cotton, 1,772 hogheads of tobacco, 2,199 hogheads of sugar, 2,378 barrels of molasses, and articles not enumerated, and casting up in value exceeding six millions of dollars. For thirty thousand dollars per year judiciously expended, this channel can be opened one year with another. There is also detained outside of the bar, twenty vessels inward bound, many with valuable cargoes—in fact, there are over ten millions of dollars of property now jeopardized.—Our citizens thought that the large appropriation of \$300,000 would, at least, prove of some little advantage to our neglected city. Fifty sail of vessels will now be detained at our levee awaiting a change in the channel, as it is folly for a ship to proceed, or attempt to proceed to sea under present circumstances. The ship *Frank Pierce* cleared on the 9th of December, and ought to have been in Liverpool before this time. The ship *Malabar*, for Boston, cleared on the 31st of December. There are other great and important considerations involved. Exchange has been drawn against the cargoes, which, with ships' disbursements, drafts are on the way hither for payment, and we might bring forward a column of annoyances and injuries to the trade of our city and commerce. Northern and Eastern shipowners will suffer with us, and it behooves them to apply through their immediate Representatives, with our own delegation in Congress, for relief."

The following works were received at the Washington City office of the Review, since our last issue, and when they have reached us, will be noted fully. Will not publishers send through the *New-Orleans booksellers* such works as are intended for us!

Our book notices, next month, will include all that have been received since the removal of the main office to New-Orleans:

1. *What Will He Do With It?* by PISISTRATUS CAXTON.
2. *Sylvan Holt's Daughter*: by HOLME LEE.
3. *Self-Made Men*: by CHARLES C. B. SEYMOUR.
4. *Frederick the Great*, 2d vol: by THOMAS CARLYLE.
5. *The Ministry of Life*: by MARIA LOUISA CHARLESWORTH.
6. *The Land and The Book*: or *The Holy Land*: by W. M. THOMPSON, D. D.
7. *Terence and Phadrus, literally translated*: by HENRY THOMAS RILEY, B. A.

WE remind our subscribers very gently, that in the general prosperity of the South and West, we hope to share during the season which is now upon us, in the way of a very large increase in our subscription list, and in the way of payments for past and current indebtedness, which we hope will be prompt and liberal. Payments may be made through agents or by mail to Mr. Steuckrath, or at the office in New-Orleans in person, or through commission merchants.

In the last year our subscription list has increased to the extent of one third. With the active aid of friends, we hope, by the first of January next, it will have doubled.

We can supply numbers and volumes, and also require certain numbers, as will be seen in the February No., page 238.

Several typographical errors escaped attention in the article by the Editor, for the February No., entitled "Bishop Capers and the Methodist Church."

In our advertising pages appears the card of W. T. Walters & Co., of Baltimore, one of the largest importing houses at the South of foreign wines, brandies, &c.

PERUVIAN SYRUP,

Or, Protected Solution of Protoxide of Iron,

having successfully passed the ordeal to which new discoveries in the *Materia Medica* are subjected, must now be received as an established medicine.

ITS EFFICACY IN

CURING DYSPEPSIA,

AFFECTIONS OF THE LIVER, DROPSY, NEURALGIA, BRONCHITIS, AND
CONSUMPTIVE TENDENCIES, DISORDERED STATE OF THE
BLOOD, BOILS, SCURVY, THE PROSTRATING EFFECTS OF
LEAD OR MERCURY, GENERAL DEBILITY, AND ALL
DISEASES WHICH REQUIRE A TONIC AND
ALTERATIVE MEDICINE, IS BEYOND
QUESTION.



The proofs of its efficacy are so numerous, so well authenticated, and of such peculiar character, that sufferers cannot reasonably hesitate to receive the proffered aid.

The Peruvian Syrup does not profess to be a cure-all, but its range is extensive, because many diseases, apparently unlike, are intimately related, and proceeding from one cause, may be cured by one remedy.

The class of diseases for which the Syrup provides a cure, is precisely that which has so often baffled the highest order of medical skill. The facts are tangible, the witnesses accessible, and the safety and efficacy of the Syrup incontrovertible.

The Peruvian Syrup, by its wonderful effects on the Liver, either wholly removes, or radically cures CHILLS AND FEVER.

Those who may wish for an opinion from disinterested persons respecting the character of the Syrup, cannot fail to be satisfied with the following, among numerous testimonials, in the hands of the Agents. The signatures are those of gentlemen well known in the community, and of the highest respectability.

CARD.

The undersigned having experienced the beneficial effects of the "Peruvian Syrup," do not hesitate to recommend it to the attention of the public.

From our own experience as well as from the testimony of others, whose intelligence and integrity are altogether unquestionable, we have no doubt of its efficacy in cases of Incipient Diseases of the Lungs and Bronchial Passages, Dyspepsia, Liver Complaint, Dropsy, Neuralgia, &c. Indeed, its effects would be incredible, but from the high character of those who have witnessed them, and have volunteered their testimony, as we do ours, to its restorative power.

REV. JOHN PIERPONT,
THOMAS A. DEXTER,
S. H. KENDALL, M.D.,
SAMUEL MAY,

THOMAS C. AMORY,
PETER HARVEY,
JAMES C. DUNN,
REV. THOS. WHITEMORE.

CERTIFICATE OF DR. HAYES.

It is well known that the medicinal effect of Protoxide of Iron is lost by even a very brief exposure to air, and that to maintain a solution of Protoxide of Iron, without further oxidation, has been deemed impossible.

In the Peruvian Syrup this desirable point is attained by COMBINATION IN A WAY BEFORE UNKNOWN; and this solution may replace all the proto-carbonates, citrates, and tartrates of the *Materia Medica*.

16 Boylston-Street, Boston.

A. A. HAYES, M. D.,
Assayer to the State of Massachusetts.

N. L. CLARK & CO., PROPRIETORS,

NO. 5 WATER-STREET, BOSTON.

ALSO,

REDWELL & LAWRENCE, Washington,
W. H. BROWN & CO., Baltimore,
HAYLAND, STEVENSON & CO., Charleston,
WARD & JONES, Memphis,
J. WRIGHT & CO., New-Orleans.

— BY ALL DRUGGISTS.

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY, 1846.

APRIL, 1859.

VOL. XXVI., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 4, N. S.

ART. I.—HENRY W. LONGFELLOW AND HIS WRITINGS.

It is a fact worthy of observation, that the opposing elements in this country are assuming, from day to day, a more resolute form. Their champions are no longer confined to politics or theology; to a hostile array of parties, or a division of churches by sectional and geographical lines. The spirit of exclusion and of aggression, with a steady and stealthy tread, has at last invaded the republic of letters. The literature of the North, descending from its high vocation, has become the ally of huckstering partisans and of scheming divines. Slavery is the theme alike of preachers and of poets, of politicians and of novelists. Even the grave purposes of History, and the still graver ends of Constitutional Law, are wantonly perverted, that the institutions of the South may be weakened at home, and be deprived of sympathy abroad.

Thus arraigned at the bar of Christendom, by our brethren; by orators whom we have honored; by divines whom we have revered; by authors whom we have admired; by a people to whose prosperity and greatness we have in the main contributed—surely it is time for us to throw aside our dreamy idleness. We have not made due note of the changes which have taken place during the last decade. Secure in our strength, in the rectitude of our cause, and in the guarantees of the Constitution, we have not marked the coalitions that have been formed, the influences that have been at work,

LONGFELLOW AND HIS WRITINGS.

engines of evil that have been employed, to close the every forum against us. The legislation of Congress defy; the ravings of the pulpit we can laugh to scorn; a shameless dismissal of Lord Napier from his embassy hington, because of his supposed sympathy with the we can despise for its littleness, and disregard for its cess of harmful results; but since literature has the field, and bowed down before the spirit of fanaticism have an enemy both too insidious and too dangerous to be treated with simple contempt. It is in view of facts, and of the consequences which are likely to result from them, that we have undertaken the task of discussing, freely and without reserve, the merits of Mr. Longfellow, a writer, who has been for many years a favorite of New England, and who has attained to the dignity of a national poet. He has, indeed, been more caressed and flattered than any other writer of poetry that this country has produced. That he has somewhat inflated by these adulations is not surprising. To form our opinion of him solely from his writings, and the fact that we have been able to obtain of his history, we judge that he is composed of that "sterner stuff" which bears, with becoming meekness, the smiles of prosperity, nor, with patient endurance, the blasts of adversity. There is evidently very little to be got out of the martyr about him. There is very little of the soul-inspiring enthusiasm which renders a man glorious. There is very little warmth, and less imagination, than nature. There is very little love of his fellow, either in abstract or in the concrete. There is very little of that independence of thought which enables a great mind to stand up for errors against every obstacle and in despite of every opposition. In lieu of these exalted qualities, he is blest with a commendable desire for the good things of life; with capacities for imitation; with a respectable ambition to let the world know that he has lived; with a cool judgment, a keen memory, an acute knowledge of man, and a huge self-interest.

It is not difficult to imagine with what complacency one constituted lolls in his easy chair, watching the shadows pass across the portrait of his friend, the notorious Charles Sumner; which graces his "study." It is also easier to imagine with what satisfaction he peeps out of his window, through the snow-drifts, to catch a glance, by the pale light of day, of the erect figure of Washington, as it moves in its like majesty in front of his mansion, than it is to believe in the existence of such an apparition. This silly story, as obtained an extensive currency through the writers

tings of Miss Mitford, seems to rest on the authority of Mr. Longfellow, who is stated to have seen it with his own eyes. Nothing can better illustrate the mental calibre of the man—his excessive vanity, and the profound faith he entertains of the gullibility of mankind—than the importance he has attempted to attach to this marvellous incident. To sensible and reflecting people, it must ever appear absurd, ridiculous, and untrue; but among those whose grandmothers, not two centuries ago, were drowned, burned, and pressed to death, for witchcraft, perhaps no tale is too monstrous to be credited. With the bigotry of their ancestors, they may have inherited their ignorance, credulity, and superstition.

Now, we opine, if there is a ghost in the case, it is the unquiet spirit of old Thomas Tracy, who, for many years, and long before Washington made his headquarters there, was the proprietor of this same "Cragie House." We are told that, in his time, he was an opulent trader, celebrated for his good dinners and good wines; whose ships traversed all the seas that separate the East and the West Indies. His favorite pastime, it is said, was to plunder rich Spanish galleons, returning homeward, laden with the precious products of eastern climes. Doubtless, in default of these or some other equally pleasurable employment, this freebooter of the seas often delighted his friends, in and about Boston, with the sight of an assorted cargo of Africans; for which he found, among his puritan neighbors, a readier sale than he could command for his spices or his silks. If we are correct in this surmise, his reappearance, "in the vestments of the tomb," is, indeed, quite significant. It is the mode by which he intends to rebuke the change which has taken place in his old haunts, upon the subject of "human merchandise," and to remind his immediate descendants, like

"Willie Gris,
Of what *he* was and what *they* is."

Mr. Longfellow's lot has, assuredly, "fallen on pleasant places." Excellent salaries, and a ready sale of his ideas, have attended his footsteps like friendly genii. His prose, his rhymes, and those bastard productions, of which he appears so fond of late, which have neither sex nor gender, name nor nation, have all been greedily devoured. He is no longer the poor poet; he is the veritable owner of "Cragie House," with broad acres around—with beautiful prospects and pleasant scenes about it. With such a home to shelter him from the *winter's storm*; with such associations linked with every foot of its old timbers; with such a visitor to enliven his midnight

vigils; and with gaping multitudes, eager to believe his phantasies and purchase his writings, he must feel decidedly comfortable. No doubt, he regards the occasional notes of dispraise which fall upon his ear, pretty much as a lordly lion in his native jungles listens to the buzzing of distant gnats.

But he has other sources of satisfaction. The productions of his pen, after having received the plaudits of his countrymen, have been favorably noticed in England, and, through the medium of translations, have reached some of the continental nations. Few poets, of this age, have been thus honored; few Americans, of any age, will be again. This transatlantic popularity is readily accounted for. Mr. Longfellow, who has spent no inconsiderable portion of his time abroad, is essentially foreign in his habits, manners, tastes, and modes of thought. His prose, his translations, his compilations, and his poetry, are all of a kind. Whoever reads them with the expectation of finding illustrations of the institutions, the prevailing ideas, or the aims, grand and holy, of this country, or of the sentiments, intelligences, moralities, or idiocracies of the people, will certainly be disappointed. For the knowledge they impart in these respects, they may as well have been written by an utter stranger, residing in the "castle of Nuremberg," or "by the winding Po," or on Threadneedle-street, London. Instead of speaking to distant nations in terms of praise of his native land, and of trying to teach them what was admirable and worthy of imitation in our people and government, he has pictured to us their scenes, and has drawn his most important events, his chief characters, and his best thoughts, from them. His intention seems to have been, to indoctrinate his countrymen with habits and ideas alien to our soil, and to make for himself a European reputation, by turning his back upon his country, and by truckling to the prejudices of foreigners. With Goethe for his model, and from whom his chief inspiration is derived, it is not strange the northern continental nations admired the mysticism of their old favorite, when it came back in a foreign language, and so disguised in the gloss of words, as to appear fresh and new. With Tennyson as the head of a school of poetry, which he has successfully, in some respects, imitated, the praises of the English were to have been expected; for to abuse the writings of Longfellow, would be to flout what they had gone into ecstasies over, in admiration of their poet laureate. An American, with no American ideas; a scholar, whose learning is of the German schools; a traveller, who loves the Rhine better than the Mississippi, and knows more of the Danube than of the Alabama; a patriot, who has no

of the prejudices of country ; a free-born citizen, who is no propagandist of freedom ; a lover of liberty, who has never raised a voice nor written a word in its defence ; a partisan, who wants none of the spoils of party, and yet levels his deadly aim at the unoffending inhabitants of fifteen States, who live under the same constitution with himself—is a very proper personage to be applauded and admired by a large class of readers in every nation in Europe.

It is therefore apparent that Mr. Longfellow has made a decided hit—achieved a success. But success, while it may be an evidence of merit, is not the true standard by which it is to be judged. That it is not, may be proved by innumerable instances in the history of every art, avocation, and profession, and nowhere more conclusively than in literary pursuits. Sir Walter Scott, as a poet merely, had more readers, and excited more enthusiasm, than any writer of poetry of his time ; yet no one thinks now of comparing him, in all that constitutes greatness, with either Burns or Shelley. His beauties were real gems, fresh and pure as the dews of his own vernal meadows ; and there was, in the manner of his thought, in the simplicity of his language, and in the subjects which he treated, something so attractive, so stirring, so loving, so true to the characters and scenes which he portrayed, that mankind did not pause to inquire whether his were the songs of genius, or the sweet echoes of a genial, trustful, and honest heart. On the other hand, Burns, who may not inaptly be termed the child of sorrow and of song, was hated, scorned, persecuted ; lived in obscurity and died in poverty. He cast the rich jewels of his divine spirit at the feet of his countrymen, without as much effect as did Murat, when he threw the jewels of his crown before his panic-stricken army, as they fled in the streets of Moscow, with a deluge of fire hissing at their heels. It was not until the darkness of the tomb had gathered over his ashes, that the light of his glory, bright as a comet, shone along the paths of fame. Then it was that the enlightening, elevating, and refining influence of his poetry was understood and felt. A more striking parallel still might be drawn between John Cleaveland and John Milton. They were contemporaries ; they addressed as it were the same audience, and lived in the same country. For twenty years the first was not only the popular favorite, but was esteemed England's greatest living poet. Now, he is scarcely known ; his works and his fame have perished together. Of the other, though neglected by his country, and jeered and derided by his contemporaries, it may be truly said, that the volume of his life grows more majestic, as it grows more remote from the

which he wrote. His great heart must have been swollen to bursting, when he exclaimed, "I have lived an late." It was a feeling kindred to this, and, if possible more poignant, that produced, in the last will of Bacon, dying wail: "For my name and memory, I leave it to the charitable speeches, and to foreign nations, and to the age."

These citations are abundant to show, that neither success nor failure is the criterion by which a correct judgment is to be formed of the productions of a writer; for there are so many powerful influences, which elevate or depress, make or unmake the fortunes of men engaged in the pursuits of literature, that no author's reputation is secure, until he is brought before the unbiased tribunal of posterity. To what extent Longfellow is indebted to the "tricks of trade," and expedient compliances, for his present position, it is impossible to determine. This much, however, is beyond cavil: that he has every advantage, which friends, publishers, newspapers, and respectability in his social and business connections could give him. Early in his career, he was fortunate enough to attract the favorable notice of some intelligent persons, who lead and direct public opinion in the free States. These may be mentioned Horace Greeley, who, through the columns of the *Tribune*, speaks daily to more than a hundred thousand people. That restless and wily demagogue, who, when petting is needed, to pat Mr. Longfellow on the head, as he would a spoiled child. That these extrinsic advantages, and a fortunate adaptation of his subjects and style to the popular taste, have led, in a large measure, to his great remarkable success, we are justified in assuming, though he has failed to produce either a great poem or a very high order of poetry. Some of his lyrics are couched in chaste and simple language. The subject is often natural, the diction plain and the rhythm harmonious. They have a simplicity, directness, and fitness of expression, which old Samuel Johnson might have envied. They display, now and then, some happy images and delicate conceits. There is a tendency to wander round Dreamland, that heightens their interest and adds to their effect. They are perfectly free from vulgarity and the words of dubious import. They are concise, to the purpose, and generally terminate in the right place. They are the best of all his writings. Yet, in force and beauty, they are inferior to those of Burns; in melody and depth of thought, to those of Tennyson; in directness and purity, to those of Wordsworth. Even in the regions of his boasted mysticism, his "affectual fires" pale before the genius of Coleridge.

The truth must be told : there is nothing original or striking, nothing that elevates the imagination or stirs the heart, from the least to the longest of his productions. His ideas are commonplace, his versification affected, his delineations overstrained, and his self-sufficiency disgusting. He handles his subjects in silk gloves, and touches them daintily with the tips of his fingers. He evidently thinks more of the author than of the thesis, and places more value on lavender and cologne than on the toil that weareth the brain. In short, he is too cold to be genial, too selfish to have feeling, and too confined in his standard of excellence to rise to a level with great minds. He has never written a line that deserves more than a passing remembrance. But there are graver objections than these, which have been urged against his writings. He has been charged with the grossest imitations and with shameless plagiarisms. The "*Psalm of Life*," which has been more commended than any other offspring of his muse, is the prose of Jean Paul turned into numbers, with a happy dovetailing of a word, an idea, or a line purloined from Dr. King or Lord Byron. Mr. Edgar A. Poe, with several other instances of plagiarism which he brought home to Mr. Longfellow, cited one, which has been confirmed in a manner so remarkable as to deserve special notice. We allude to the "Good George Campbell," which was published in the February number for 1843, of "*Graham's Magazine*," as a translation from the German of Wolff. It turned out to be a poem published by Motherwell, sixteen years previously, and disguised by an occasional alteration of a word, and a change from the Scottish to the English dialect. Mr. Longfellow *may* have translated it from Wolff, and *he* may have translated it from Motherwell. These are the probabilities of the case. The certainty is, that we have been unable to find it, in any edition of Mr. Longfellow's works, which has fallen under our observation, published since Mr. Poe's scorching exposure. Is not this a tacit admission of the charge? Even "*Hiawatha*," which has been esteemed for its originality, seems to have been borrowed—in the structure of its versification—in the style of its peculiar metre—in its blending and use of proper names, and in its wild and varied fancies—and these are its chief beauties—from a Finnish poem, the "*Epic Song of Kalalana*."

But we have a still more serious charge to bring against Mr. Longfellow. In 1844, he published, for the first time, his "*Poems on Slavery*." It will be recollected, that one of the earliest agitators in this country, on the delicate and important subject of slavery, was William Ellery Channing. He wrote, and he talked, and he preached, with an industry, an

earnestness, and an ability, worthy of a better cause. His fanaticism—his fervid denunciation—his burning indignation, met the warmest approval of Mr. Longfellow. He even addresses him in stale and vapid verse, bidding him fight on, and fight ever, against his countrymen at the South.

Others of these "*Poems*" are filled with the foulest exaggerations, and breathe the most incendiary spirit. The icicles which usually encircled his heart, even slightly melted—not with a noble humanity—not with a far-reaching and deep-searching love for the down-trodden and oppressed—but with the hope of receiving the adulations and of deserving the caresses of a wild and reckless faction in this country, and of the double-distilled venom of a clique in England. He had no personal wrongs to avenge on the South. Her people had ministered to his purse, had even taken some pride in his growing fame. The political arena had not been soiled by their touch, nor disturbed by the cry, of abolition agitation. The country was at peace; discord was at rest. Mr. Longfellow's friend Sumner had not then received that memorable and deserved castigation for his libels, which has branded his name with infamy; nor had his compatriot Burlingame been compelled to flee to the Canadian shores to display his martial prowess. No state necessity, no suffering morality, no bleeding humanity, inspired his soul or roused his dormant patriotism. There was neither excuse nor apology to justify his wanton and shameless attack upon a people who had never offended him—upon an institution over which he had no control, and for the maintenance of which he was only so far responsible as he might revere and uphold the constitution and government to which he owed allegiance. Under these circumstances, we do not hesitate to say that no man of a truly elevated nature—with high and generous sentiments warming his bosom—with the instincts of natural justice and charity guiding his impulses—would stoop to prostitute thus his pen. But there was one meaner step to take, and he took it. It was this. In 1845, his poetical works were for the first time collected into a volume and published with embellishments. These "*Poems on Slavery*" were omitted in that edition. They have been omitted in the ten succeeding editions which followed, down to 1855. Why was this? He did not have the moral courage to face the indignation of a people whom he had so insultingly wronged. He was afraid that the sale of his books would be injured at the South, well knowing that the Northern and foreign demand for the suppressed portions would be supplied from sources always at command. Now, however, that prosperity has made him insolent, and the bold

bad movement which he gave an impulse to, has spread over the whole North, he drags from their hiding-places these "*Poems on Slavery*," and boldly inserts them in a new edition of his works, from the Boston press. The history of literature affords many instances of imposture; but none can be found, not even that of Dr. Ireland, more impudent, unblushing, or despicable, than this.

The civilization of every country is closely blended with its social existence. Like liberty, it is dear to every man who has the soul to appreciate its value. The people of these United States have many reasons to be proud of and attached to theirs. It is different, in many respects, from that of other nations, just as our systems of laws, our free institutions, our complex form of government, our modes of thought, and the habitudes of our people, are different from all others. It is, therefore, as much our duty to maintain and advance this peculiar civilization, as it is to preserve the political and other blessings which we enjoy. This can be done efficiently, by a literature which shall be commensurate to our intellectual wants, and which shall, at the same time, be capable of illustrating and expounding the march of progress, however rapid or expansive may be its destiny. But this civilization cannot be rendered permanent, nor this literature respectable, unless the language in which thought is conveyed to mankind, is kept pure and idiomatic. Many, perhaps most, of the social advantages which belong to our people, are theirs by right of conquest over rugged nature, opposing elements, and hostile man; but the language, which above every other circumstance renders the nation homogeneous, comes by inheritance. It descended from the same Providence, and the same ancestry who gave to us a refuge and a home in the western wilds, civil and religious liberty, and a national existence. The authors who have made that language glorious by their writings, and the great truths they have taught, are precious heritages to this generation, no matter what sky smiled over their birthplace. Their works and their fame belong to portions of two hemispheres, and as much to America as to England. Wherever the drum of the Anglo-Saxon or the axe of the Anglo-American is heard, there is a common bond, which must ever unite them so long as they speak a common language. A responsibility, therefore, rests upon each, and upon both, to honor the old fathers who, through centuries of darkness and toil, constructed that language; and to cherish the words in which *they wrote*, the *styles* which they adopted, and the *idioms which they established*. Let posterity collate new ideas if *it can*, let them express those ideas with fullness and with

at one time was fascinated with the idea of thus transmitting to coming generations his immortal thoughts; but mature reflection, a diligent study of its principles, and some experience of the dangers of so great an innovation, convinced him of the propriety of giving it up. What he remarked, in one of his epistles, written in 1850 to Harvey, who was a bosom crony, has lost none of its truth by the lapse of time. He says, in allusion to the English hexameter, "The only or chiefest hardness is in the accent, which sometimes gapeth, as it were yawneeth, ill-favoredly, coming short of that it should, and sometime exceeding the measure of the number; as in *carpenter*, the middle syllable being used short in speech when it should be read long in verse, seemeth like a lame gosling, that draweth one leg after her; and *heaven*, being used short, as one syllable, when it is verse stretched with a diastole, is like a dog, that holdeth up one leg." Nash, a witty and brilliant writer of that day, characterizes it as "that drunken, staggering kind of verse, which is all up hill and down hill;" and "like a horse plunging through the mire in deep winter; now soused up to the saddle, and straight aloft on his tiptoes." Subsequently, an obscure author, by the name of Webbe, took the same crotchet into his head that had haunted Harvey, and undertook to render the *Eclogues* of Virgil into English hexameter. The following couplet from that work, found in Mr. Hallam's "*History of the Literature of Europe*," as a specimen of sense, if not of smoothness, is fully equal to some of the flights in the "*Courtship of Miles Standish*:"

"But by the scorched bank sides, i' thy footsteps I go plodding;
Hedgegroves hot do resound, with grasshops mournfully squeaking."

All these efforts, with some others, which were made in the succeeding half century, met with signal failures, although commenced under every advantage of time, talent, and circumstance. English literature was then in its infancy; ardent minds engaged in the task of introducing the change; the idioms of the language were unsettled; usage, precedent, and association, had not given a decided preference for one kind of verse over another; a venerable antiquity had not crowned, with its mellow glories, the works of the old authors; and the ancient classics were studied and loved as never before nor since. It remained for the restless and innovating spirit of the present age to revive the attempt to destroy the entire prosody of the language. The apparent success which attended the introduction of the hexameter into German poetry, under the auspices of Goethe and Schlegel, incited a busy coterie in England, with Mr. Southey at its head, to similar undertakings. With such examples before him, it

prising that Mr. Longfellow, whose eye is ever strained
foreign lands—whose ambition is all concentrated in
Atlantic celebrity, now that he has conquered a place at
—whose chief vanity is gratified with being able to
and his countrymen with novelties—whose love for Amer-
literature is measured by the dollars and dimes it brings
pockets—should readily lend the little prestige which
ings to his name to further the same end. The landmarks
which guided the good and great of past times, in the pur-
sue of truth and excellence, of course, could be of small
use to such a mind as his. The civilization which has
light its way through the darkness of the middle ages, and
fully overcome the iron oppression of feudalism, is not worth
reserving, in the estimation of a man, whose patriotism is
bounded by his own domain, and whose love for mankind is
confined to himself. He may yet, however, be made to feel
with old Samuel Darriel:

“ ——— but years have done me this wrong,
To make me write too much and live too long.”

ART. II.—THE OLD DOMINION—VALLEY OF THE RAPPAHANNOCK.

We concluded our last number with a description and his-
tory of the village of Port Royal.

We have since examined several patents granted in the
years 1661-'66, and find the transportation of persons (ser-
vants), in all cases the specified consideration. Prosser, whom
we found joint patentee with Chitwood for a large tract
on the opposite side of the river, patented also much land
on this side. Neither he, nor any of the early patentees of
and in this vicinity, seem ever to have occupied their lands.
It is probable they were shipowners and merchants, who made
business of the white apprentice trade, just as the French
and English now do of the African and Coolie apprentice
trades. Their servants were required to serve only four years
if over sixteen when imported, if English; if Irish, six years.
After a time the Irish were put on the same footing with the
English servants. The Yankees have returned to the system
of white slave immigration. They send “capital” (as Mr.
Sumner tells us) “in advance of labor,” buy up the lands,
build houses, erect mills, &c., &c., so that when the laborer
comes he finds himself *comfortably* enslaved, until popula-
tion becomes dense or wages low. Then he can, under this
new system of “organized emigration,” join another Kansas
company, and move further west; still as a slave, but a slave

with good wages. Poor emigrant pioneers, settling in single families, are worse off than slaves, and nearly as ignorant and savage as the Indians. Such is the description which Horace Greeley gives of them at the North, and we have no doubt it is a faithful one. The Virginia white servants could not be punished corporeally without the judgment and sentence of a justice of the peace; but the masters were authorized, without such sentence, to shave off the hair or bore the ears, and brand the cheeks with the letter R, of habitual runaways. These runaways were sometimes insurrectionary, and incited the Indians to make war on the whites; hence the shaving and branding them were necessary police regulations. They were subjected to capital punishment if they left *either* powder, or shot, or a gun, with the Indians. Far the larger portion of the white servants must have been worthy poor persons who had no other means of emigrating; for they soon blended and harmonized with the richer classes, and formed, by the intermingling, a society so remarkable for moral elevation as to be likened to the Romans, even before the Revolution. By-the-by, the account of the Romans is that they were originally a very mixed breed.

The Sabine women never made better wives than the girls imported from London for the colonial planters, nor did the Roman men make kinder, more indulgent husbands than those planters. The Virginia Company in London were careful and choice in the selection of the intended brides, and the House of Burgesses, in Virginia, very stern in their requirements; for we find them shipping back two of the girls for misbehavior in their voyage to Virginia. The early Virginia burgesses lived in a protracted crisis, in the midst of danger and Indian incursions and war. They were large landholders, had numerous white servants and dependants, and owned many negro slaves. They were well-informed, chivalrous, iron-willed, rigid men; a new and much improved edition of the "Grim barons of mediæval England." Growing up in the colony, they understood its wants and its interests, and were alone formed and fitted to rule it. They chafed and fretted under all English interference in their affairs; always succeeded in thwarting and defeating such interference, and, under Cromwell, whom they cordially despised and hated, were wholly independent of English rule. They had neither sympathy with the English revolution, nor admiration for its regicide actors, who were equally ready to cast away their principles and become the sycophants of the vulgar usurper and despot, Cromwell, or to cringe like fawning spaniels before the throne of the dissolute Charles II. Not a name

Eastern Virginia, of town, river, county, or individual, preserves the memory of the English revolution; Virginians then treated it with silent contempt. Their posterity have "nursed their wrath to keep it warm," and continue the quarrel with the crop-eared puritan. The names of the counties in Eastern Virginia were taken generally from the nobility and royal families of England, because the burgesses considered the nobility and royal family their peers and equals, not from a feeling of servility. Edmund Burke well understood the proud indomitable spirit of these Virginia barons, and warned England of the folly of attempting to subdue them.

The government of the colony was very like that of Sparta: thoroughly republican, thoroughly aristocratic, strict, rigid, minute, and all-pervading. Like the Spartans, surrounded by enemies far more numerous than themselves, and with scores of turbulent servants within, they found it necessary at first to lead a camp life under military discipline, and to hold lands in common. They had, too, public granaries for the supply of all in case of dearth or accident.

They displayed great sagacity and wisdom in their early agrarian and military social organization, and equal good sense in permitting separate ownership of lands, and consequent social segregation, so soon as their numbers rendered separate living safe. It is true they were well nigh exterminated soon after trying the experiment, but this was owing to a degree of Indian cunning, concert, and treachery, that the most cautious could hardly have apprehended.

The colony was a garrison and a camp, and strict subordination, and concert of thought and action, were essential to security. Freedom of religion, and liberty of speech and the press, were rigidly and properly inhibited. Persons who poked in disrespect of the Church of England, of religion, the Bible, or of public officials, were censured, punished, and compelled publicly to acknowledge their offences, and beg pardon for them on their knees. Quakers were expelled the colony, and if they returned the third time, were to be hung. This intolerance of dissent, when it affects the safety, the morals, or the peace and quiet of society, still distinguishes Virginians. A stern and rigid public opinion now suffices to restrain offenders, whom our ancestors very prudently and wisely subjected to the stocks, the pillory, and the gallows. The puritans of New-England were at first more moral, religious, wise, prudent, and intolerant, than we, but now negroes go to school *with* and marry white girls, Bloomers walk the streets, *strong-minded* women lecture against marriage and the Bible, and *stuck-minded* men against everything orderly or respectable—consequence of which "Waltham factory boys and Nation

cobblers" have usurped the highest places in society; and New-England institutions are tottering to their base. If their friend, his ebony ex-majesty, Faustin of Hayti, would send them a young prince of the blood to rule them, their condition would be mightily improved. However, if she will send the factory boys and cobblers back to work—put her great men (of whom she has plenty) in her high places, reinstate her orthodox clergy, return to her intolerance of infidelity, heresy, immorality and error of every kind, and renew the African slave trade, we will make friends with her. In fact, we greatly admire New-England, when she is "right side up," but heartily detest that vulgar, abominable vice which she is obscenely displaying just now.

But where are we? Why, we started with our readers for a pleasant trip down the happy, fertile, smiling valley of the classic Rappahannock, and here we are! stuck fast in the snows of New-England, in the midst of January, with bleak mountains, and sterile fields, and noisome, noisy factories, and cobblers, and Bloomers, and heretics, and infidels, around us. Why, at this rate, and traveling in this direction, it will take us a year to get to the mouth of the Rappahannock, and the end of our subject; besides, we shall travel by the North pole (which is somewhere near the State of Maine), and visit the antipodes.

Just below Port Royal, on the land of Philip Lightfoot, Esq., there was once an Indian village or settlement. The locality still abounds with their stone arrowheads, long sharp stones intended to spear fish, stone ornaments; and a stone axe or tomahawk has been found there. A few miles below, a silver medal, appearing by the inscription to have been presented by Captain Smith to Powhatan, was picked up some twenty years since. At Port Tobago, once the property of Sir Thomas Lunsford, there was also an Indian village. Many Indian relics have been disinterred, or found lying on the ground there. We presume these Indians belonged to the tribe of Mattapoisi. Descendants of that tribe, mixed with the negro, still dwell in our neighborhood. The remnant of the tribe still reside in a neighboring county, on lands allotted to them by the State. They are not subject to the ordinary State authority, but are an "*imperium in imperio*," governed, we know not how. They retain not a word of the Indian language, live chiefly by fishing, manufacture a coarse earthenware, are harmless and inoffensive, and about three hundred in number. They now have as much negro as Indian blood. *We do not believe any Indian tribe ever resided permanently above Port Royal. There was no good fishing above, no or*

ters, and the stiff and stony lands, twenty miles above, could not be cultivated by their wooden or stone implements. Here, they were within a few miles of abundant oyster banks and fine fisheries on the Potomac, and resided on lands exceedingly fertile and easy to cultivate. The few Indians found in Virginia, clung to tide-water, and perished so soon as driven from it. The lands of Virginia, on the Chesapeake, and near it, on the rivers falling into it, would sustain in abundance a population four times as dense as that of China, with little labor. The fish and oysters alone would support millions, and catching them is rather an amusement than labor. The land, now rich, is everywhere underlaid with fine marl, and may be supplied by cheap water carriage with manures of all kinds. We have no stone or rock, no stiff lands, and little or no wet lands to contend with. No wonder the Indians chose it for a residence. If we had to live by manual labor, we would stick to the oyster-banks and fishing-grounds.

Talking of oysters, reminds us that the Rappahannock is celebrated alike for the quality and quantity of its oysters. Our "fundum" will some day pay a large revenue to the State. We observe that a State commissioner has already been examining it, and has reported very favorably as to its present and prospective productiveness.

Fish of all varieties common to our latitude abound in the lower part of the river; and shad, herring, sturgeon, alewives, &c., up to the falls. The soil on the Rappahannock is generally light and sandy, better calculated for Indian corn than wheat: yet some of it contains sufficient clay, and is wheat as well as corn land, of the best quality. Wheat and corn are almost the only crops. It is not good grass land generally. Such of it as produces grass well, is too productive in grain to be applied to grazing. The valley or river flat, including each side of the river, averages about three miles in width. It is all cleared and in cultivation.

This valley has been becoming more and more healthy for the last thirty years. Bilious diseases are not more common on the river than in the forest. The brows of the first hills, some mile or two from the rivers, are now almost the only sickly situations in Eastern Virginia. The average length of human life, in this whole section, is quite as great as that of any other country.

The most remarkable characteristic of this valley is the absence of all great crimes. We do not remember to have heard or read of a single instance of wilful premeditated murder, committed on the flats of Rappahannock, nor indeed of any *striking enormity* whatever. Its history would furnish no

material for a modern novel, or a sensation paper or review at the North. We have no police reports, no calendar of crime, no gross ignorance, no destitution or starvation, no trades unions, no hungry mobs, no operatives out of employment, of houses and homes, of food, of fire and of raiment. There is nothing dramatic, nothing tragic or horrible in the tenor of human life. We have made the rash and entirely novel attempt to write about men's good actions, instead of giving a darker hue to their crimes; to describe peace, plenty, abundance, contentment, good order, morality and piety, instead of taking our readers, like a Northern sensation editor, or French or English novelist, into dens of destitution and crime, into gambling hells, into cellars crowded with disease, infection, and poverty, into deep gloomy mines, wearisome factories, and starving cottages. The public taste has become vitiated and depraved. It likes "to sup full with horrors." Those writers are most popular, those books, papers, and reviews, most read, which portray the dark and gloomy side of human nature. With us it has no dark or gloomy side. We are obliged to say good things of our neighbors, because we know nothing bad of them. The fashionable writers of the day must be hypochondriacs or vile defamers, or human nature around them is a very different thing from that to which we have been accustomed.

The defect of our society is, that it gets on so smoothly, so quietly, so *comme il faut*, that life almost stagnates into *ennui et tedium vitæ*. Readers accustomed to gloat over twenty murders a day, will hardly condescend to read us, who have not a single crime or stirring tale of human suffering to relate. Possibly, nay, probably, Mr. Reviewer, your readers belong to a class who have as little taste for the *horrible* as we. Trusting to this, we are venturing to serve up an intellectual report, without those condiments of crime and poverty, considered so indispensable by all the fashionable and popular writers of the day.

There was a time, however, when, in this now quiet valley, human life was dramatic and tragic enough to gratify the appetite of the most gluttonous lover of the horrible. For most of the first forty years after the original settlement, war raged between the colonists and the Indians; war, such as none but savages can wage, and none but men bent on extermination can retaliate; war open and covert; war in the grain field, in the cottage, in the church, at the domestic fireside; war in the midst of peace; war by day and war by night; war against women and children, against the sick, the aged, the infant in the cradle, and against the strong and athletic;

war between individuals and between armies. And arson, and rapine, and cold deliberate murder, the concomitants of war, were everyday occurrences. The law required all men to keep guns, and powder, and shot; to go armed into their grain and tobacco fields; nay, always to go armed to the house of God. But neither history nor tradition has preserved the details of this gloomy period. The very names of half the Indian tribes engaged in these border feuds, are lost and forgotten. We rejoice that it is so. Men are not made better by reading graphic accounts of savage ferocity, diabolical revenge, and unsparing cruelty.

The hand of Providence has drawn the veil of oblivion over the dark deeds perpetrated by men maddened into monsters.

On the south side of the Rappahannock, Mr. William Pratt's arm and beautiful residence, Camden, lies, next below Mr. Lightfoot's; then Port Tobago, belonging to Mrs. White, and adjoining Liberty-hill, belonging to John T. Boutwell, Esq. On the opposite or King George side, lies the fine farm and improvements of Mrs. Tayloe and Carolinus Turner; the former called Oakenbrow, the latter Nausatico. This last is one of several fine estates belonging to Mr. Turner, on the river. Walsingham, the farm and residence of George Turner, Esq., opposite Port Royal, is where the first American Turner of this family settled. He made a tasteful and judicious selection for his cis-Atlantic home. Next below Nausatico is the farm and dwelling of our old friend (not an old man), schoolmate, and connection, Fielding Lewis. He is the great-grand-nephew of Washington, and, in person, more like him than any man living, unless it be his father, Dangerfield Lewis, Esq., of Marmion, King George Co., Virginia. At Marmion, here is a fine portrait of Mr. Lewis's grandmother, a sister of Washington. It is noble looking, and greatly resembles the portraits of the General.

On the south side of the river we come to the Essex line. Richard Baylor's extensive and fertile estate begins here. He owns here in a compact body some eight thousand acres of cultivated flat-land, of excellent quality; has besides, states lower down the river; and has purchased of late years Sandy Point on James river, a very large and valuable farm, being part of the Tettingden estate, the family-seat of the Lightfoots. Mr. Baylor has built a dwelling on the hills above his flats, such as becomes a man of his means. Bishop Leade, in his "Families of Virginia," gives an interesting history of the Baylor family. Mr. William Brooke, an aged and highly respected gentleman, owns Brooke's Bank on the river, below his nephew, Mr. Baylor's estates. In this vicinity are

the estates of Senator Hunter and Hon. M. R. Garnett. We need not tell the reader who they are, except to say they are estimable in their private relations, as they are distinguished in their public ones. Below this are the extensive and fertile estates of the Messrs. Waring, nephews of Mr. Richard Baylor. I knew their father well. He was my friend and classmate. I was also acquainted with their grandfather, the late Robert Payne Waring. He was the wealthiest land and slave holder, and (we thought) the best man, in Eastern Virginia. In this vicinity, on the river, lies Blandsfield, the venerable baronial mansion and estate of the Beverleys. We presume, from the name, indeed we have heard, it originally belonged to the Blands, a wealthy and distinguished James river family. The Beverleys probably acquired it by intermarriage with the Blands, for they (the Beverleys) are connected with most or all of the old James river families. Intermarriages, continued and repeated, between members of the same family, or between families variously and nearly related, have been long practised in Virginia. It is a popular notion, that such intermarriages exercise a deteriorating influence on their progeny, both physically and intellectually. Our observation has led us to the opposite conclusion. We breed animals in and in, to obtain and preserve a good race, and never cross the hound with the spaniel, the race horse with the Flemish mare, nor the game cock with the dunghill fowl, to improve the breeds. Crossing produces incongruities and deformities, and partial hybridism, for in England it is ascertained that after frequent crossing animals cease to breed. The color and proportions of all wild animals, birds as well as beasts, are perfect, because they breed in and in. Domestic animals and domestic fowls are disproportioned in figure, awkward in movement, piebald, wall-eyed. Chickens are spotted, speckled in color, and devoid of all character and uniformity, because of the conjunction of incoherent and incongruous breeds or races. The Roman patricians were the purest, the noblest, the greatest of men, until they blended by intermarriages with the wealthy plebeians. After this, their lofty pride and courage, and their talent for command, were gone. They had sold nobility for money, and, true to the terms of the compact, the Roman senators, their descendants, became usurers, instead of warriors. The plebeian class lost, at the same time, their loyalty and courage, and gained nothing by substituting misers for heroes, as masters, nothing by erecting an aristocracy of money in place of an aristocracy of virtue, courage, and family.

"Tis better to fall before the lion than the wolf—better to have a master with a sword by his side than one with a quill behind

his ear." So long as private property is permitted, there must be an aristocracy; for wealth is power and distinction. We have Hebrew practices and authority for our theory; in Tobit, iv. 12, we find these words:

"Chiefly take a wife of the seed of thy fathers, and take not a strange woman to wife, which is not of thy fathers' tribe, for we are the children of the prophets, Noah, Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. Remember, my son, that our fathers from the beginning, even that they all married wives of their own kindred, and were blessed in their children, and their seed shall inherit the land."

The North secs and complains of its codfish nobility, which, with its multitudinous crossings of blood, is not half so respectable as Virginia's old colonial baronage, who, like all hereditary nobility, were, from their limited number, of necessity continually breeding in and in. We do not know how far this was the case with the Beverleys. We do know that, without their wealth and without their high English connection, their talents and courage would have sufficed to have gained them distinction in the colony.

Col. William Beverley, a lineal descendant of the celebrated Beverley, the clerk of the House of Burgesses, who was so long and so unjustly persecuted for his patriotic and pertinacious refusal to deliver the journal of the House of Burgesses to the Governor and Council, now owns and occupies Blandfield. The early historian of Virginia, Beverley, was also an ancestor of Col. Beverley.

We will now return to the north side of the river, and take a stride from Mr. Fielding Lewis's to the "*quondam*" town of Leeds. Much of interesting historical association, no doubt, intervenes, but we have neither time nor means to exhumate and expose it. Leeds was established in 1742, two years before Port Royal. It was at first a place of much promise, grew rapidly, and was distinguished for its tobacco trade and its races, at which most of the wealth and fashion of Virginia annually assembled. When we studied geography (Morse's), which wasn't so very long ago, Leeds was enumerated as one of the big towns of Virginia. Now, Marius might philosophize amid its ruins (if he could find them), and, but for the splendid corn that grows where "Leeds was!" another Ossian might memorize its decay.

The trustees for laying it out, selling the lots, &c., were all and each of that landed aristocracy who ruled Virginia, despite of King, Parliament, and Protector. They lived "few and far between," because their great landed domain intercepted and prevented contiguity. The statutes of the colony, which they alone enacted, recognised them as a distinct, privileged class, who were exempted, on account of their degree, from those corporeal punishments to which ordinary people were

subjected. They resembled the patricians of Rome, more than the half-way nobility of modern England. Like those patricians they had, practically, no king or other superior above them, and, like them, they were heads of great social circles that depended on and revolved around them. They had each a large retinue of slaves, white apprentice servants, freedmen and poor dependants or clients. Like the Barons of Runnymede, if not kings, they felt themselves the peers of royalty. Born and trained for command, they made excellent rulers, because they had been educated for that purpose. A shoe-shop or an attorney's office is now deemed the true school of statesmanship, "*Credat Judæus Apella, non ego!*" Jack-Cadeism is learned in such schools of politics, and Jack-Cadeism is rampant already in Massachusetts, and about to sing out—

"When Adam delved and Eve spun,
Where was then the gentleman?"

as prelude to its agrarian projects. "It will not, and it cannot come to good!"

The names of the Leeds trustees were—Thomas Lee, Esq., Charles Carter, Thomas Turner, Daniel McCarty, Harry Turner, Maximilian Robinson, and Nicholas Smith, gentlemen.

This is the same Thomas Turner, of Walsingham, and the same Charles Carter, of Cleave, who were appointed two years after, as trustees for laying out Port Royal. They were taken from the opposite side of the river, and from another county, as trustees in the latter case, and carried nearly thirty miles below to lay out Leedstown. So we find Mann Page, from Spottsylvania, appointed as a trustee for Falmouth, in King George. None but large landholders, who were well informed, were then appointed to office. The Leeds trustee, Harry Turner, was brother or father of Thomas Turner. One of them married a Miss Smith, and thereby acquired Smith's Mount, a fine farm near Leeds.

The Lee mentioned as one of the trustees, was a member of the Stradford family of Lees, so distinguished in history. Nicholas Smith was a descendant of a wealthy old Gloucester family, and an ancestor of the present Lieutenant William T. Smith. It is curious and agreeable to trace families from their early settlement on James and York rivers, and in Middlesex and Gloucester, up the Northern Neck, to the mountains, and finally to the south and west, and to the Pacific. Bishop Meade's list of vestrymen enables us, in a great measure, to effect this. This is true history, the more interesting, because it treats of men more like ourselves, than heroes and kings, the usual "*dramatis personæ*" of the historian.

Social history is generally felt to be a desideratum, and

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pens, both in Europe and America, are being employed to supply the deficiency. But materials are wanting, and fires, and the negligence of individuals, are consigning to destruction valuable family papers that shed light on this most useful and interesting branch of history. The compilers of the *Pictorial History of England* have attempted to add social to political history, but evinced neither research, industry, taste nor judgment, in feeble effort. In truth it should be kept separate from all history, for it is a tangled web, sufficient for the rich and ingenuity of any one mind.

Just back of Leedstown, on the narrow tableland that intervenes, is one of the best county neighborhoods in all Virginia. It is classic ground, too, for it overlooks the birthplace of Washington, and is the land of the Lees, and many distinguished Revolutionary worthies. Westmoreland has been truly called the cradle of the Revolution, not only for the count of the great men whom she furnished, but on account of her early and decided action in behalf of revolution.

We regret that we cannot stop and tarry with our work in this pleasant and classic neighborhood, but we have much work before us in the valley which we have chosen as our theme, and little time or space in which to complete it. However, our pen, "*acquirit vires cundo*," and after getting into the Rappahannock, we contemplate a trip up the Bay, to the Potomac, across the valley to the "Ultima Thule" of our rant to Lord Fairfax. We will visit our friends about the place of Washington, and linger with them as we ascend the Potomac. This will be as author. In the meantime, we would like to see them in *propria personæ*, and would modestly expect that they have, as usual, plenty of fish, oysters, wild fowl for the man, and ransack all the old drawers, chests, and garrets, to find papers for the author.

The site of Leedstown was first in Lancaster county; then in Rappahannock county, which was cut off from Lancaster; then in Richmond county; then in King George, which was cut off from Richmond, and finally its ashes reposed in Westmoreland, the cradle of liberty, and birthplace of Washington. Above, and adjoining Tappahannock, lies the farm of Dr. James C. Bishop Meade has given us no account of the Roanoke, because, we presume, they make no figure in the annals of the Episcopal church. They were very early settlers. The first we hear of them is in the counties of Hanover and William. A member of the family told us that they were conspicuous actors in Bacon's rebellion. The history of the rebellion is rather dim and indistinct, but taking Burke's

account of it, who seems himself to have been one of those early democrats who confounded treason and patriotism as one and the same thing, and is the apologist and eulogist of Bacon, taking even his account, we think Bacon was half filibuster, half Jack Cade. He slew the Indians, "hip and thigh," just as Moses and Joshua slew the Canaanites, simply because they were Indians; and then marched upon Jamestown, because he had nothing else to do, but with as little definite object in view as Jack Cade, when he boasted that "he would graze his pal-frey in Cheap-side." We shall not attempt to rescue from a well-merited oblivion the valiant deeds enacted by the Roanes in this half-mythical siege, but have no doubt they were as brave as either Ajax, and as irascible as Achilles.

In the first notice we meet of them in history, we find them in a position as honorable and distinguished as that of the English Barons at Runnymede—like them, striking a first great blow for liberty, not because they thought themselves the equals, but because they felt themselves the superiors of other people. Never was the struggle for liberty or independence begun, except by aristocrats; for to them alone are the fetters of despotism galling and oppressive. But when a La Fayette, or a Washington, has opened the way for the rabble, and given them a taste for the sweet abandon of licentiousness, they turn upon their liberators, abuse them, ostracize them, put their own creatures into all high places, expel religion, threaten property, and erect altars to Peter Porenpino, or Tom Paine, or the Goddess of Reason. But it is only the volcanic throes and eruptions of revolution that can keep society "bottom upward." Subsidence and stratification are natural, healthful, regenerative processes, in the social or political body. Already men, and men's memories, are ascending or subsiding to their natural positions. Great men are selected for high positions, as well in France as in America. The worship of Tom Paine, Peter Porenpino, and the Goddess of Reason, has ceased; and nobody traduces the memory of Washington and La Fayette, except Mr. Garrison's Massachusetts free negroes, and his masculine women and feminine men. The specific gravity of the masses is fast restoring them to their true place, as the substratum of the social edifice. Like Richard Cromwell, tired of playing the sovereign, a part for which they are unfitted, as well by birth as education, they have abdicated, and instead of ruling, are content to follow their rulers, by King Caucus appointed. But we don't mean to be read out of the great Democratic party, which we have stuck to ever since our boyhood, through good report and through evil report, in its prosperity and in its adversity, and

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we mean hereafter to stick to. It is a sensible, practical, that adapts its principles, of which it has plenty, measures, to the exigencies of the occasion—that is, liberal and revolutionary, when revolution is needed, and vigilant, and conservative, when the rational and just objects of revolution have been attained. We were radical when we were young, and so was the party. The advance of age, and maturity, have made us conservative, and we find that the Democratic party is becoming quite as conservative as we. We return to the Roanes. We find two of them, Thomas Roane and W. Roane, signers of articles of association entered by some hundred and ten gentlemen of the Northern Neck, who engaged themselves to stand by each other in resisting the execution of the Stamp Act, at all hazards, and denying the right of the British Parliament to tax the colonists. It was written by Richard Henry Lee, of Westmoreland county, who signed it. It is dated February 27th, 1766, more than ten years before the Declaration of independence. Of itself, it initiated the Revolution; so that we find the Northern Neck and Rappahannock Valley striking a blow for independence, ten years before independence was formally and nationally declared. It is a much better written paper than the after Declaration of independence, for it expresses in few but well selected approved words, the firm resolves and purposes of brave and enlightened men, without any of the Bombastes Furioso, Jacobinism, false, fallacious, and puerile stuff about humanity and the rights of man. They were practical men, determined to redress the wrongs inflicted on themselves, and to bequeath to posterity, “all the world and the rest of mankind,” to be free to their own affairs, as occasion might require and circumstances permit.

They published no new system of political and social philosophy, as a panacea for all of humanity. The world hadn't gone clean daft mad, as it did soon thereafter.

The “spirit of universal emancipation” had not been introduced. Brave, grim-visaged men then ruled a world, which had been committed to the care of too tender-hearted old men, and crazy “rose-water” philanthropists. The paper to which we have referred will be found in the appendix to the name of Bishop Meade's work, page 434.

The Roanes were zealous, active Whigs, during the Revolution. The family have been generally talented, and all, we believe, decided Democrats. Among its distinguished members were Judge Spencer Roane, of the Court of Appeals, of Virginia; his son, the late Hon. Wm. H. Roane, a senator of the United States; Hon. John Roane deceased, long a member

f Congress from the King William district, and his son, Hon. John Roane, afterward a representative from the same district, but for many years past a resident of Washington. A ranch of the family removed to Tennessee. One became Governor of that State, and another a very learned physician of Nashville. Our mutual and accomplished friend, Mr. Editor, A. Roane, of Washington, is of this branch. We wish that he would more frequently adorn your REVIEW with his learned and polished contributions.

By furnishing incorrect information to Bishop Meade, in tracing the genealogy of the Brockenbrough family, we created our friend and connection, Hon. John Roane, out of a grandfather. We wrote that "Newman Brockenbrough, rather of the celebrated Tory, Austin Brockenbrough, was childless." We were mistaken. He had one daughter, who married the Hon. John Roane, Sen., and was the mother of the present John Roane, of Washington. William Brockenbrough, the father of the celebrated Tory of Newman, and of Mr. John Brockenbrough, is one of the signers of the association above mentioned. His son, Dr. John Brockenbrough, married Miss Roane, sister of Hon. John Roane, the elder. From this marriage are descended all the Brockenbroughs who have attained distinction in Virginia. This family originally settled in the valley of Rappahannock, and many of them still reside in it.

A most worthy member of it, Dr. Austin Brockenbrough, of Rappahannock, died very recently. He was one of the few remaining links connecting the gentlemen of the old school with those of the present day. He left great wealth, to be divided among his numerous and highly respected descendants.

The village of Rappahannock is the county seat of Essex. It is handsomely situated on the Rappahannock, where the river is more than a mile wide, and navigable for ships. It is much improved recently, and contains, we believe, a population of about five hundred. It is as well situated for foreign trade as any other point on the waters of the Chesapeake, and must become a considerable town when connected with the Great West by railroads. The wealth of the valley of Rappahannock, and its rich oyster banks and fisheries, render its connection *ultimately* inevitable. We cannot go the length of Mr. Barwell's theory, however ably sustained. Railroads without breaks are to agricultural countries, and to countries producing only the raw material for manufactures, exhausting cathartics, and render them tributary to the manufacturing nations with which they deal. European trade is an unmitigated evil, first, because the skillful labor of Europe is thereby twice as well paid as the coarse, common labor of

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rica, for which it is exchanged ; and secondly, because a
le engaged in producing the mere raw material, can never
ore than half civilized. That people which practises most
e useful arts and industrial avocations, is most civilized ;
which practises fewest, the least civilized.. The whole
st and end of European trade is to enable us of America,
savage princes, to enjoy the products of art without be-
ng artists ourselves ; to exchange two hours of our coarse
: for one hour of their skillful labor. It makes us slaves,
he essence of slavery is to be deprived of part of the re-
: of one's labor. It makes us dolts, for it relieves us from
necessity of combining intellectual labor with mere physi-
abor. It makes us dependants, because, like children, we
not learned to supply our own wants and necessities—
pt by this exchange of our "handwork" for European
adwork." Those two dunderheads, Say and Adam
h, both hold our theory. Say inveighs against the export
e raw material—which is really advocating the protective
m ; and Adam Smith shows how *breaks*, or what is the
e thing, difficulty of access, will occasion the growth of
and manufactures. Our apology for citing these, or any
r of the free-trade political economists, as authority, is to
ince our old foggy readers, if any we have, who still re-
ce their oft-refuted absurdities and contradictions. This
school of economists had no knowledge whatever of the
ions of labor and capital : hence, they were all abolitionists,
eory, if not in fact, and should be consigned to the flames.
eaks benefit towns and villages, just as they do nations,
is, such towns, villages, and nations, as have not acquired
cient skill and capital to enter into competition with the
sets of the world. Richmond needs them as yet, and
ld have them. She should be the terminus of our railroad
m until she is strong enough to stand alone and defy
petition. Our present railroads, too, should be close mo-
lies, until the wealth of the West pours in, to support and
ire more roads. Then, and not till then, should railroads
e the Rappahannock valley.

here is not a mother, white, negro, or Indian, in all Amer-
who is not perfect master of political economy, or rather
ocial economy, within her own sphere of action ; not a
lar, philosopher, or statesman, in the world, who compre-
ls, or ever will comprehend, its true, national, political, and
d-wide applications ; yet the principles of the science are
tically alike with the mother and the statesman. Protect,
e, the child, nation, or community, until it is old enough, big
gh, smart enough, skillful enough, to take care of itself, to

compete with the world ; then, and not till then, it is fitted for the war of the wits ; then, turn it loose, to cheat "all mankind and the rest of the world." A mother knows when, and how long, to practise the protective system, and when to send out the sharp youth to practise free trade, or the war of the wits system. Free trade, and protection, are equally true ; the practical pathologist, and the sagacious, instinctive mother (woman's instincts never err), only know when to apply the one, when the other. We have long since learned that there is nothing so very *true* ; at least, no truths which the human mind can comprehend and follow out, in all their ramifications, and to their whole extent. Hence, all systems of philosophy are of necessity false ; and hence, we intend, when we have leisure and sufficient encouragement, to write a treatise on "Moral Pathology." Don't, dear reader, get scared at pathology: It is not a new-fangled term, like "sociology" and "exploitation." Any Doctor will tell you what it means, in medical practice, and you will then be able to make a pretty good guess as to what we mean by it.

We beg pardon of you, Mr. REVIEWER, for this indulgence in our besetting sin (of running off into philosophical speculation, no matter what the occasion, or who our auditors), and of you, my Tappahannock friends, for my seeming neglect—but only *seeming*, for we were trying to show you there was "a good time coming." Not wishing to extend this essay beyond a readable length, we make our bow to the reader, and to Tappahannock—for the present.

ART. III.—THE NATIONAL METROPOLIS.

WHAT IT IS, AND HOW THE AFFAIRS OF THE NATION ARE MANAGED, IN THE AGGREGATE, AND IN THE DETAIL.

We gather together, in one view, a series of papers which were prepared for us, about fifteen months since, by a gentleman well cognizant of all the ramifications of Washington life, and entirely competent to speak from habits of close observation, in regard to many of its most striking peculiarities.

Those who have resided, as we have for several years, in the National Capital, cannot fail to recognize the truthfulness of most of the pictures and portraits presented, and will be in no danger, at the same time, of confounding the excrescences which have been suffered to form themselves upon its surface, with that undoubtedly refined, polished, intelligent, and virtuous society, which, in the back-ground and unobtrusive, exists there, and has once only to be enjoyed, never afterwards to be forgotten.

From such, in every part of the District, we expect no condemnation of *our author's sketches*, but believe rather that they will concur with us, in thinking,

hey may subserve a useful purpose, in holding up to public view, and, perhaps, correction, polished villany, unprincipled charlatany, degrading subervieney, and all of the other evidences which are presenting themselves, of a corrupted court.

Mingled with our peculiar recollections of the District are so many pleasant memories, so many cherished associations, we would have never to periah, nat, despite of the shadows which have their place, we cannot, and desire not, soon to forget it How much, too, of our social and domestic life has concerned there! Alas!—[Editor.

WHAT IS WASHINGTON CITY?—As aggregations of men assemble themselves together in cities, their corporate character is necessarily determined by the predominant pursuits of the population. Thus: the city of New-Orleans deals chiefly in the great staples of the South and West; hence, the talk of her merchants is of the rise and fall of cotton, and pork, and of the rivers which bring those products to market. Leeds and Manchester depend upon manufactures; hence, they side in politics with their Republican cousins and customers. They also drug a large per-centage of their children to death annually, because laudanum and its compounds are cheaper than food or hired nurses. At Nantucket the people talk of whalebone, blubber, icebergs, and harpoons, exclusively. The dwellers at Key West, and on the coast of Cornwall, innocently interest themselves in speculations upon the wreck-rop. They will discourse of a stranded vessel with as much aliveness as a surgeon of a fractured cranium, or an attorney of the profits of an impending administration.

And so the city of Washington has its peculiar interests. Notwithstanding its founders included in their plans a grand design of bringing the trade and waters of the Ohio into the ports of the Potomac, yet is the spacious canal which traverses the city but a long lagoon into which the tide ebbs and flows. Besides bringing pine wood, Cumberland coal, and agues—making an admirable sewer, and requiring a considerable expenditure of public money to bridge it at numerous points—we are not aware that the canal is in any other manner valuable to the city. The chant of the seaman is never heard upon its wharves; the swift gondola does not glide upon its surface; and, except that its turbid bed may be sometimes ragged for a missing Congressman, it sleeps away its ignoble existence in monotonous insignificance.

PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE.—This is the Wall-street of Washington. Here the chances of office become the theme and staple of speculation. Upon this Bourse and Exchange, Administration stock represents "consols," while that of the mercurious aspirants for the succession bob feverishly up and

down the "fancies." Here, Pierce may have run up, under a leader from the *Richmond Enquirer*, or receded with a telegraph from Kansas. The nomination of Fillmore may have caused inquiries after Know-Nothing scrip; while Fremont, put upon the market with no buyers, soared far above par, but ran rapidly just as far below his original figure. Here, the bulls and bears "growl and fight" over the reciprocity treaty—the Mexican indemnity, or the Texas debt—the Capitol Extension, the Deficiency bill, or the Public Printing—these last the effluvium Nili* of the citizens.

CITY PROPERTY.—In like manner, the price of property in the city depends upon politics. Its assessed values represent the stalactytic concretions of the Federal Treasury, *ab urbe condita*—subsisting upon the Government as the mistletoe upon the oak—the adoration of the Federal Union assumes an intensity unknown elsewhere. The value of property in the city depends as much upon the permanence of the Union, as that of a Dutch city does upon the integrity of the national dike. So, just as the hard frost, which destroyed the dike vermin and saved Holland from inundation, relieved the anxieties of that nation, the Compromise of 1850 gave a new lease to the Confederacy, and greatly increased the value of property in Washington. With the same prudent regard for the main chance, the people bear without regret their anomalous exclusion from Federal suffrage or representation. They deem it better to rely upon the favor of Congress as their local legislature, than to insist upon having a representative in that body. And they have reaped a substantial advantage from this as Canada has from continuing in colonial dependence upon England.

POLITICS IN WASHINGTON.—It is thus that streets have been opened and lighted; public squares planted in shrubbery and enclosed with iron; public edifices erected; bridges built; sewers opened; an expensive aqueduct ordered; besides a thousand minor works, necessary to the comfort of the inhabitants. Besides this, the corporation has been aided or relieved of its subscription to the canal, and, perhaps, of other unproductive enterprises. We are not prepared to say that this is not a wise exchange of right of special representation, for the substantial advantage of a general guardianship. It is true, that some of these advantages have been neutralized of late by the fashion, to which we shall hereafter advert, of holding a

* The rise of the Nile fills all Egypt with delight. "When the river riseth," says Pococke, "to seventeen cubits, the Egyptians make great rejoicings, and cry out, 'Wafas, Allah! God has given all we wanted.'"

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; canvass for the presidency. For when these municipal ions are adverse to the representative majority, Congress is little inclined to favor measures recommended by the cil. Hence, it is usual to apprehend a very "dry year" a Democratic council, and a Know-Nothing Congress, or *versa*.

TECHNOLOGY OF WASHINGTON.—As the population of other s has been attracted by peculiar inducements, much of which originally settled our Federal Metropolis was ferred with the archives and offices of the National Ad- stration from the seat of Continental Government. Upon foundation arose its present numbers. This population sents every party which has existed from the origin of the rnment. Each Administration has brought its retainers; hey have remained, either because unable to get away, or use they hope upon some change to regain the places which they may have been evicted—or better ones. s, the followers of the Adamses were superseded by those of rson and Jackson, those of Polk by those of Taylor, and . Thus may be found the types of every opinion, from powdered aristocracy of the Federal *regime*, to the most o disciple of a manifest destiny. The overthrow of the ed States Bank, and the repeal of the Sedition law, have advocates; while their compatriot antagonists look for econd coming of Biddle for the financial redemption of the blic. The higher law has its worshipers, and the highest ; those who are ready to certify that measure to be a cea for all political evils. Of course, many content them- s with their salaries without betraying any interest in party or principle whatever. The extremes of opinion, ver, to which we have adverted, rarely appear after the generation ; afterward, the mental conformation yields rrounding influences, and becomes acclimated. The bold ents of opinion to whom we have referred—boulders from their natural position by the convulsions of party— eneral disintegration and detritus—have produced in their ndants a soil fruitful of office-holders. The Federal y has intermarried with the Democratic family—the ater with the submissionist—until a complete amalgam, eal and political, has been the result. The necessity of iding upon salary for subsistence, and the extreme diffi- of retaining any official situation, without some flexi- of opinion, has established a system which renders the d incumbent comparatively safe from the storms of state ; s some birds, in regions subject to the visitation of the anc, secure their nests in such a manner that they may

turned topsy-turvy without injury to the occupant. Let us
this indispensable system somewhat in detail.

POINTED TO OFFICE.—Some fine morning, the Hon. Mr.
erset informs one of his political supporters, that he has
ved a cabinet appointment, and tenders him a bureau.
friend, transported with the proposal, gives up whatsoever
usiness or expectation he may have, and removes with his
ly to the seat of Government. Perhaps, before his salary
waxed and waned in its third quarter, his patron places
elf in the opposition, or is translated to some better
on. Upon one pretence or another, his chief of bureau is
pelled to abdicate. He retires, fully believing that,
ss the entries upon the books are made in a manner intro-
d by himself, the Government must come to an end. He,
efore, awaits with confidence either an explosion of the
rtment, or his own recall as the only thing which can
ent it.

THE RESULT.—Meantime, his wife and daughters have
ted to that common house refuge—they keep a boarding-
e. The decapitated head of the bureau dwindles into a
old, thread-bare person, employed in awaiting the restora-
of “sound principles,” and writing up the books of some
urant or livery stable, gone into liquidation. Fortunately,
sour grapes eaten by the parent, do not set on edge the
cal teeth of their children.

THE CONGRESSIONAL PAGE.—The mamma and sisters recom-
d the sons to members of Congress, and in due time they
attached to the public tent as pages of the House or
te. Thus, they learn to smoke furtive cigars and drink
raband liquor in Committee rooms. Then they fold and
st documents, and are included in that generous extra-
vance bill, whereby for doing forty dollars of work the
oyé sometimes receives two hundred dollars by way of
ity. This illogical bill makes the principle exceed the
ent. In this responsible station the page takes his first
ns in political commerce. His parents—at least his
rial progenitors—have suffered enough from the ambitious
selfishness of the great to regard patriotism as unqualified
mon. These experienced people have been near enough
grand painting exhibited for the admiration of the public,
nd it colors gaudy, and its canvas coarse. They have
ed upon the Levites, and know that the fine flour, and the
d sacrifice supposed to smoke upon the altar and propiti-
benign influences, do in fact gladden the stomachs of the
ical priesthood, who minister in the federal temple.
is a philosophical as well as an imitative animal. The

subordinates analyze the system of their superior, and apply it to their own humble advantage.

So when the mother smooths down the shirt collar of the little page, and dismisses him with an affectionate kiss, to his destiny of living always upon the Government, we may suppose that she embarrasses him with no Spartan injunction, to return victorious or return no more; she, perhaps, whispers into his ear some such practical admonition as that of Dame Lobkins: rather to rely upon making his way by "insinuation than bluster." So the page manifests just enough of the partisan to comply with the existing pressure, but not enough to render him incorrigible of conversion. Thus, they are trained early to ride in the ring of party, without losing their equilibrium, or being unhorsed by any casualty whatever.

FAMILY CONNECTIONS.—It is natural that this law of self-preservation should organize a sort of mutual assurance, the members of which are never in danger of being wholly out of employ. The ancestors of the present community have "come in," under the various political "conquerors." They have been fixed together by common friendships, debts, and intermarriages. They have been reciprocally sureties for the forthcoming of each other's furniture, when in some dark withdrawal, and eclipse of the rays of patronage, the relentless landlord has distrained for rent in arrear. They have been taught the hollow mockery of promised office, and the deplorable instability of administration favor. They make a covenant to sustain each other. One family has been Democratic since the days of Burr and Jefferson, another had a Federal grandfather, and has come down as an heir-loom, to the opposition, under every alias. These families have intermarried. It being the fashion, in the Metropolis, to name the children after distinguished statesmen, this composite family has its John Quincys, duly relieved by its equivalent, Andrew Jacks-sons, and its budding Harrisons neutralized by juvenile Polks. A change of administration occurs. Instantly the appropriate influences are brought to bear upon those branches of the genealogical tree, in the ascendancy. By a minor movement the opposition tone is resolved into the dominant chord. As for the Jacksons and Polks—like the young lady in the song—

"Their lips are now forbid to speak
That once familiar word."

You hear nothing but William Henrys and John Quincys. *But do not* suppose that the anonymous young gentlemen *are* forgotten. By no means. Those who coincide with *the Administration* demand office or promotion. They are no

sooner in than they provide, under various pretensions, for their relations, who have been running on the other line. Like the gentleman in the Arabian tale, who obtained admission into the hospitable house of Ali Baba, they only await a suitable moment to introduce the other gentlemen in the jara, who are hiding their time in the court-yard. Upon any change of political programme, the operation is reversed. But as the spitzdog of Munchausen was never thrown out of the chase, because he only exchanged a set of tired legs for fresh ones, so one of these families, judiciously compounded, can never be thrown out of office. Its power increases with every generation, until it acquires such a hold upon all of the political parties that it becomes an established institution, and can no more be overthrown than the Coast Survey. It was thus, we are told, the provident landholders of England preserved their estates during the civil wars. The father took one side, the son another, and the family estate, though often forfeited, always vested in an orthodox heir.

DISTRESS CLAIMS.—Often, however, an office-holder has no such resources. He must then depend upon his own ingenuity. It is no uncommon thing to appeal, in such a case, to the humanity of the new incumbent who dispenses the patronage of the department. This may be done thus: The lady of the postscript appears before the Secretary in deep mourning, except her white handkerchief, which she keeps steadily to her eyes; she is accompanied by her own nursery, strengthened by suitable extracts from that of any sympathetic friend. These children are neatly dressed, and ostentatiously mended; their faces are washed and their heads combed, until each looks like a nice little butter-print, just out of some mountain-spring house. The lady, with a voice broken by sobs, tells the story of her troubles, and sometimes succeeds in obtaining a pardon for her unlucky spouse upon condition that he reforms into the ranks of the orthodox. The miserable official takes the bounty with as much alacrity as Caddie Headrigg, and is willing, with that misguided rebel, "to drink the king's health into the bargain, if the ale's gude." Perhaps, when this triumph has been achieved, some competitor, clad in recommendations like a coat-of-mail, and representing also that clamorous constituency, a wife and children with threadbare clothes and exasperated appetites; may be even then ravening in the ante-chamber for the office of the postscript.

Yet, who can blame them, hapless people? Left on a desert shore by the treachery or bad navigation of some political commander, they have no supplies or means of escape.

Must they not then construct a raft of any materials that offer? What else can they do? They have no alternative except to seek office and retain it by the most assiduous means. These wrecked mariners seize upon every floating scrap of patronage and cling the tighter with every wave that threatens to wash them off. It is true, the necessities of this condition nurture much that is base and despicable. The chief offices in the departments are often sought with a disgraceful degree of solicitation. Then, as the robes of servility are always lined with arrogance, the new incumbent has but to change them and he becomes as tyrannical as an Austrian. Then the underlings of office seek to ingratiate themselves in his favor by flattery. This system of brow-beating, eaves-dropping and slander, inseparable from party appointment, renders the position of respectable subordinates very miserable, and causes the poor clerk, who possesses the spirit of a gentleman, or who is conscious of any flaw in his political antecedents, to live in as much fear of the "yellow cover" which encloses his dismissal, as of the premonitory symptoms of yellow fever, if he lived within the range of that epidemic.

PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN.—The nominee being announced the Metropolitan orator does not omit to italicize his own particular influence, in producing the nomination, which he rather intimates could not have been brought about without it. To be sure some other hundred orators are at the same moment claiming the same merit elsewhere. The oration concludes with a confident enumeration of the States which are to "go for" the nominee, and he is elected by immense acclamation. To this flattering demonstration, the nominee or his representative replies from the balcony, supported by a staff of friends and all the ladies about the hotel. At the close of each sentence the applause is loud and uncontrollable, when he closes his speech with a profusion of bows, and backs into the parlor windows; any stranger to our institutions would suppose the election decided, and nothing necessary except a formal count of the ballots. The same thing will, however, take place in a few nights, at some other hotel; there will be the same brass band, the same acclamation, the same attendant crowd—indeed little will be changed except the orators and the tail barrels.

AUXILIARY CLUBS.—But the moot contest commences in earnest. The city partisans form their auxiliary clubs. They correspond in every particular with the national committees, formed by the great parties contending for the federal administration. There is generally a club for each State, the place of meeting whereof is indicated at night by a transparency of

oiled paper. These clubs elect presidents and secretaries, appoint committees and "adopt the rules of the House of Representatives," for their government. They assess a campaign fund upon the helpless clubs, and clapping the blunderbuss of removal at their breasts, demand its payment. The wife of the clerk denies herself a gown, the children wear their winter clothes deep into the summer, the market basket is lighter for a few days, and the tax is paid. Those higher in station are approached with more circumspection, but with equal success. The great bankers, hopeful of future deposits, reverse the scriptural injunction, and give in the presence of as many witnesses as possible. The contractor parts with a part of his gains as a guarantee against the annulment of his contract. Perhaps his partner may be effecting a similar insurance at the office of some other association. Who knows?

COLLECTIONS.—With the funds thus collected, the association proceeds to adopt and publish the most efficient campaign documents. These are circulated under the imitation frank of members of Congress. An extensive correspondence is opened with every section of the Union, and very soon associations are in receipt of confidential communications. Upon these the members look very mysterious—talk with great convictions of "our majorities in Schoharie or Plaquemine," and, being met by a diametrical contradiction from some political antagonist who has received an equally confidential communication upon the same point, these communications become a subject of dispute, that results in reciprocal imputations upon the veracity of the disputants, or wagers of very large sums, to be staked next morning. These imputations are subsequently withdrawn without bloodshed, and the wagers commuted for "drinks." Sometimes, however, the courage of the disputants is screwed up to the betting point. It is scarcely necessary to say that in such a case the parties having the risk of a loss superadded to the impulses of patriotism, frank ten times as many documents, and send the most conclusive arguments for or against "squatter sovereignty" to the remotest settler upon the "Lost Prairie," or the wooliest gold-digger in the "First-come-Diggins." As the mail generally hunts up the digger with an accumulated correspondence of six months, and hands him both documents at once, he at first rises in his own estimation, supposes that the members who send them must have "seen him somewhere." Then he has misgivings that it is the device of a creditor to draw him into correspondence. But as he reads both documents at long intervals, and without any regard to continuous study, the contents arrange themselves in his mind, in strata, and he comes out of his political

examinations in exact equilibrium—that is, he “don’t care a straw about either.” But this last is an episode.

UNCERTAINTY OF RESULT.—That our readers may appreciate the uncertainty of political intelligence, we give the correspondence upon which the wager of our partisans is depending. It will be remembered that each has received a counterpart of the same letters, claiming a particular constituency with equal confidence. The provincial correspondents are themselves expecting official indemnity for their services, and are intent to vindicate rather the activity of their efforts than the accuracy of their information.

‘To the Chairman of the Association :

“SIR : As you are no doubt looking with great anxiety for the result in this district, I have taken the liberty to give you some confidential information upon which you may rely implicitly. It is very true our antagonists have hitherto claimed a majority, but I am happy to say that the changes have been so numerous as to leave no doubt of our success. Ever since I had the honor to be appointed deputy sub-electors, I have spared no effort to propagate those principles, upon which the success of our party and the permanence of the Union so much depend. On Saturday last I met my opponent, by appointment, at the Spout Spring. Owing to a trick of the opposition, who feared the effect of discussion, a monkey and hand-organ were imported by them at a heavy expense, and stationed at the store not far from the speakers’ stand ; this impaired greatly the effect of the arguments employed by me on that day, as it drew away many of the young and thoughtless. Our audience was, therefore, restricted to those who were only intent upon changing the opinions of others without the most distant idea of abandoning their own. To show, however the salutary fear on the part of our antagonists, we took certificates to prove they had hired the monkey and organ, and several were heard to swear they ‘would not vote for so cowardly a set.’ Our friends are in high spirits and betting freely on twenty-six majority at this precinct, where our opponent had last year ten majority. Much will, however, depend upon my health ; I have had symptoms of bronchitis, from a debate in Shylock meeting-house with the glass broken. You may, however, certainly set down this precinct by twenty. Please send me some documents, and pictures, if possible. Remember me to Mr. — [the nominee].

“Yours, in the bonds of political friendship.

“N. B.—The postmaster at this office is secretly opposed to the nomination ; I hear great complaint among our friends of his neglect of duty in withholding our documents.”

As may well be imagined, the excitement constantly increases. Every night the club-rooms are illuminated with spermaceti and eloquence. Then clerks obtain leave of absence to throw themselves into the deadly breach, or perform distant and mysterious missions. Others, noted for their powers of oratory, contend with their antagonists in the adjacent cities of Rockville, or Laurel, or in the rural solitudes of “Cooney.” These combats are terrible—they are reported with many flourishes, but are chiefly remarkable because these election results disappoint the predictions of both parties, for all this fuss has as little to do with the result, as an almanac has with the weather.

THE LETTER-WRITERS.—These gentry constitute a peculiar class, generated by the action of a government, based on public opinion, and sustained by the freedom of the press. The letter writer is often a very clever fellow in both acceptations of the word. He corresponds with as many papers as possible, and he is to receive some two or three dollars per letter—if he ever gets it. This is one branch of his business, but he has more than one cartridge to his musket. There are always statesmen whose positions must be defined and defended. Orators whose efforts must be brought conspicuously before the public. There are also at the proper season inventions of the most valuable character, and claims of the justest character, which the “people will not consider,” without the commendation of the press. It is in this way that the singular combination of cabinet secrets and “remarkable improvement in the oscillatory movement of the steam-engine,” which we see in the news-letter, occur; the writer receiving a consideration present or contingent for his complimentary notices of the statesman and steam-engine. The letter-writer pitches into the campaign indiscriminately. Like the industrious bee, he possesses the rare faculty of converting the most common material into delightful refreshment. He has access to the most confidential sources of information. But there are few secrets among the brotherhood, so that after he who shall have been fortunate to gather this valuable “sunshine,” shall have “sent it on,” it becomes a subject of mutual amusement, for the letter-writer is never a partisan—he has too much freedom of intellect and too varied an experience for that. So each of them travels round in the morning in pursuit of materials, such as is suitable for the telegraph is communicated, the remainder is worked up into various letters, and sent North or South, as may be most proper. It is not impossible that different editions of the same fact may be prepared with such variations as may adapt each to the latitude for which it is intended. There is a class of rather higher and more certain compensation; it is those who correspond with the leading papers of the principal cities. They often obtain contingent interests in important claims, and have perhaps the control of secret service money, for procuring the earliest copies of important public documents. They have occasionally grown rich upon these various sources of income.

The letter-writers occasionally do a good deal of mischief; several duels have grown out of their paragraphs, and they have sometimes been visited with the indignities of the cudgel. *The duels between Cilley and Graves, and that between Ritchie and Pleasants, owed their origin to news-letter para-*

graphs. Occasionally they inadvertently render important public service, as when one of them, recently adverting to the corruption of Congress, gave that body a tangible ground of investigation which has resulted in the exposure and expulsion of several members. The unlucky letter-writer, however, having made it a point of honor to conceal a felonious proposal, seems to have reaped none of the honors of martyrdom. He was made very ill by his imprisonment, was expelled the House, and the public seem in doubt whether his first imputations upon Congress were intended to promote the public interests or his own.

THE NEWSPAPERS.—The journals published in Washington owe their support chiefly to public appropriations. As it is very well known to proprietors that the patronage of a partisan consists in ordering the paper to be sent to his address, and that any attempt to collect the subscription generally offends him so much, that he withdraws his countenance and literary contributions: party papers, dependent alone upon political subscriptions, are rarely long-lived. They rarely receive the patronage of their political opponents. Their own party subdivides upon some difference about men or doctrines, one or the other of these sections cuts and proscribes the party paper, and after a change of one or two editors, an attempt at compromise, and perhaps a subsidy for its support, it goes down.

The course of such journals must be uncertain, and their duration ephemeral. Sometimes, under the spasmodic influence of party excitement, a paper blazes up for some months, but dies out with the fever to which it owes its existence. The public commons are strewn with the bones of generous and high-spirited journals, which illustrate the real ingratitude, or the incapacity of party spirit. Hence, a paper at Washington must represent a party which has been, or may be, able to endow it with a substantial support. The duties of such journals are very arduous. The organ of the dominant party is an attorney for the crown; it must justify and defend every act of the administration. It must assail every measure and motive of the opposition. It must copy every misdeed, and conceal every censure, of the party policy. The organ of adulation must smoke every day upon the altar of Executive worship, and the daily sacrifice of an enemy must propitiate the favor of that sensitive and sanguinary deity. This divinity is extolled as infallible; this constellation is a planetary constellation of the first magnitude. Members of Congress, belonging to the same party, are prodigal of eulogy, and provincial favorites describe their own merits in their own language.

The province of the opposition press is plain. It is dedicated to maintain the other side of every thesis proposed by the administration organ.

This system has its evils. An administration represented by a party journal, can never know its own weakness, or the strength of its opponents. Encouraged by an erroneous idea of its own popularity, the administration, like King Canute, commands the popular ocean to pause, and the popular ocean rises in the majesty of its power, and washes King Administration out of his boots. Being thus drowned, all the rats and mice about the Executive mansion are drowned out likewise. This is a small matter, except that from such bad pilotage a whole party sometimes perishes with them.

There is, however, a conclusive reason why a party press established at the Federal city can never exercise an influence proportionate to the patronage bestowed upon it. It is that such a journal can have no access to the popular mind, and therefore no opportunity to form public opinion. In the first place, the circulation of the party journal is very limited; it is only read by office-holders and politicians; it is taken at the post-offices, the custom-houses, and at the light-houses, and sent to the foreign ministers. It exchanges with papers of its own faith. When the young people or the ladies open it, they find two sides covered with something that looks like the toll rates at a turnpike gate, only more extensive. They find the other sides divided into about equal parts between commendation of the administration and abuse of its foes; of course the ladies avoid the paper afterward, as if it were a valentine with a quiz in it. The Executive journal, then, contributes little to the diffusion of party opinions among the impartial and uncommitted thousands who usually decide elections. *Indeed, it is not believed that any Executive journal, democratic or opposition, has succeeded in nominating its favorite since the days of General Jackson.* And this, notwithstanding the profits of the public printing, with which the party journal is endowed, amounts to hundreds of thousands of dollars.

THE LOBBY MEMBER.—Byron has divided society into borers and the bored; Congress has certainly fallen within that classification. Before the establishment of the Court of Claims, and the recent investigations in Congress, there were three houses of Federal Legislation—the Senate, House of Representatives, and the Chamber of Lobbies. It was necessary that certain measures of appropriation should pass them all. The Chamber of Lobbies was interested in the defeat or passage of these measures. Its debates were as fierce, its lan-

guage as acrimonious, its combinations as formidable to the treasury, as those of either of the co-ordinate bodies. The measures pending before the lobby were generally so connected that the success or defeat of one was often an indication of the fate of all.

Before describing the materials of which the Chamber of Lobbies was composed, we will mention some of the causes that led to its formation. For many years past Congress had become a political rather than a legislative body. Owing to this fact, private claims against the Government had accumulated to an immense amount. Many of these claims were just, some unfounded, and many doubtful. Legislation having become the subordinate business of Congress, it became impossible that claimants could calculate with any certainty at what time their bills would be taken up. It was like awaiting the troubling of Bethesda. "Whosoever first, after the troubling of the waters, stepped in, was made whole," while he who "had no man, when the water was troubled, to put him into the pool," was in a bad way, for "while he was coming another stepped down before him."

Sometimes, when the claimant expected his bill to be taken up, the honorable members embark upon the sea of debate for one of those trial excursions intended to test the effect of some new principle proposed to be introduced into the State steamer at the next Presidential voyage. So just when the claimant expected to enjoy the fruits of his long expectation, like Tantalus

— "*a labris sitiens fugientia captat
Flumina.*"

Again, he is assured "to-morrow the private claims will be taken up;" he stands only number ten on the calendar, it *must* be reached. But to-morrow the House is again amid the swirls and eddies of debate, and he is as far from "a landing" as ever. Thus the claimant lingers about Washington, perhaps for several sessions of defeats and disappointments, sometimes getting his claim into what the legislative whist-players might call the "nine holes"—that is, through one House and nearly through the other, and then compelled to await the shuffling of the political pack, and play the game all over again at the next session. Thus, the claimant becomes justly indignant, desperate, and, not uncommonly, intemperate. In the meantime, worn out by constant expense, he becomes bankrupt. The hotel keepers have shut down on him. His wife implores him to come home—the children are sick, the crop raised, the creditors have levied. The claimant sur-

renders to the Lobby. He gives away a large part of his claim in contingent interests, and departs.

THE PRIVATE CLAIM PRINCIPLE.—Suppose we follow the claimant more particularly. He is an inventor, who wishes a patent prolonged; or he is the descendant of some simple-hearted patriot, who, like Governor Nelson, of Virginia, or honest Sam Dale, of Alabama, furnished money, clothing, and food, to the troops of the Republic when no one else could or would do so. Perhaps, after one or two generations may have worn out hope and patience, some young representative, enraged at the want of energy which has abandoned so just a claim, goes resolutely into it; every one interested readily gives him a power of attorney and a large contingent interest. So he sets off, as Moses did for the fair, confident in his own capacity, and cheered by the good wishes of the whole family; or, rather, he lights his torch and descends into that mine in which his predecessors have labored until all hope expired. He finds it just as they left it—the marks of the mattock, the rusted iron, and the rotted helve. But he makes light of the toil and the obstacles. His first letters home are very encouraging. Every politician whom he consults considers the claim “perfectly just.” His petition is presented. To his surprise, he sees, in a news-letter from Washington, the following:

“By the way, you will have seen that the stale and mouldy claim of D——K——’s heirs has been brought forward again, *with the facts known to all who are familiar with the action of Congress upon that subject, and the documents in the War Department.* It occasions much surprise that any one should be found hardy enough to revive it.”

This may be signed “Merrimac.” Of course the claimant is enraged. He composes an elaborate reply. The editor to whom it is addressed condenses it thus:

“We have received a communication, protesting against the remarks of an accurate and well-informed correspondent, in regard to a well-known claim; we are not responsible for his views, and can of course take no part in any controversy growing out of them. We would, however, remark, that our advertising columns are open to any parties who may choose to employ them.”

The communication of the claimant appears as an advertisement. The public take no manner of interest in the controversy. Its publication costs the claimant as much as a week’s board. “Merrimac” replies with another insinuation, which costs *him* nothing except a pen-full of ink. The angry claimant inquires who this “d——d Merrimac” is? It proves to be the anonyme of Mr. Anyside, who combines the harmonious duties of a letter-writer, and M. C. L——, Member of the Chamber of Lobbies —

“—— Why, he is wholly wrong about my claim.”
 “—— Perhaps you had better see him and explain.”

THE NATIONAL METROPOLIS.

n there is an interview, in the course of which Mr. Any-comes so well assured of the justice of the claims as to a counterpart interest for his invaluable influence. His ing like the Roman stylus, the errors made with one the instrument are easily erased with the other. The however, care as little for the vindication as they had or the assault.

worn out by the process which we have explained, the nt has been compelled to surrender to the claim agents by members, who have long been thirsting for his blood. fought and fled from the prairie wolves, like some wild but they hamstrung him at last. He falls, and they on his vitals.

pictorial moral, we present our readers with "the coun-; presentment of two brothers"—the claimant as he in Washington, and the claimant as he leaves Wash-. Really, they seem scarcely related to each other

CHAMBER OF LOBBIES AND CONGRESS.—But we return ur digression, to describe the more eminent members of amber of Lobbies; and, first, we will introduce our s to the president of the chamber, Colonel Boreall.

Colonel is an ex-member of Congress. It was the turn county in which he resided to send a member. The prominent claimant of that honor, being a sensible man, ed a mail contract. Mr. Boreall, having failed in the l character of merchant and innkeeper, employed his ice to get the contract for his friend, and took a transfer nomination. During his term, he "disported him like her fly," but at the end had to walk the plank as his essor had done.

o the "Heir of Linn," his land and money all were and he had no further claims on his party, which ex-rom him a receipt in full for the nomination. But the Ir. Boreall likes Washington; he has caught that itch lie office which is as infectious and as incurable as her leprosy. He has nothing, and expects nothing, at

He decides to enter the Chamber of Lobbies, and is ed to that honorable body as a matter of right. Here es at once a prominent position. He has been duly ed *Colonel* Boreall—perhaps from the extraordinary dity of his impudence. He is dressed in a most elabo-anner. He has as many chains as a convict; also as stripes in his cravat and vest as that useful example of lied talent generally wears. He displays exuberant

whiskers. These, as time has slightly peppered with gray, he has colored a splendid blue-black with Cristadoro's dye.

The Colonel has a right to enter the House and Senate. He talks familiarly of the President, who owes his nomination to him. That his patrons may appreciate his influence, he is generally seen sitting within the bar of the House, in close conversation with some leading members. The member smiles, and is all attention. It is upon this occasion that the strikers of the Lobby point him out to claimants, from the gallery: of course he possesses great influence; see how the member attends to what he says. If, however, the reader could overhear the conversation, it would appear that the Colonel was persuading the member to run again, or was urging his acceptance of a seat in the Cabinet. Thence he goes out with jaunty manner, pattering the pages with peanuts as he goes. Summoned into the lobby, he is too busy to talk at that time; has to put off Mr. Douglas that he may give an interview with Mr. Cass. Cass is the elder of the two, and therefore Douglas must wait. He subsequently insinuates that he has had so much to do with the nomination of certain new Senators, that they have no other anxiety than to show their gratitude for his services. Of course the Colonel has an associate upon the other side in politics, who has just as much influence with the Colonel's political antagonist as the Colonel has with his friends. These two obviously work together like the blades of a pair of scissors; they co-operate by collisions. Poetically and politically speaking, they are "distinct as the billows, yet one as the sea." Besides these leading spirits, there are other members of the chamber, varying in their service and subordination. Some are plodding, steady men, who compile laborious statistics—that lazy members may be complimented upon their research; they visit and bore Senators, obsequious, and patient of rebuff. There are also strikers, of no use except to run errands, or spread appropriate rumors. Such is an outline sketch of the Chamber of Lobbies.

The claim whose history we follow, is forthwith cut up into shares, as if it were a coal mine or a sulphur spring; the actual working expenses are assessed upon each shareholder, and the shares are distributed among those who can contribute to its success; of course, the Chambers of Lobbies has the lion's share, but editors, like writers, and not uncommonly members of Congress, are supposed to have an interest.

We have seen a public notice of one case, in which a member of Congress left a fine fortune to his children from the shares in a congressional land grant.

THE NATIONAL METROPOLIS.

A recent investigation has resulted in the conviction of four members, who, but for having stampeded, would have been ignominiously expelled. They were accompanied in exile by a letter-writer and several members of the Chamber of Lobbies, who had been required to testify to their facts.

It is, however, due to Congress, to say that but a small percentage of its members are believed to be venal. The whole reputation upon the integrity of that body has been, however, put forth by the lobby brokers, who wish money put in their own hands, and make the slander to render it necessary to employ them.

With the establishment of the Court of Claims, and the investigations of the Corruption Committee, the Chamber of Lobbies has lost its influence, and bids fair to adjourn for an indefinite prorogation. The business of representation against the Government has gone into the hands of professional counsel, and has become subject to legal rules of indication, rather than to party favoritism or to parliamentary tactics.

METROPOLITAN SOCIETY.—This polished autocrat is as omnipotent in the Federal Metropolis as elsewhere. Its demonstrations have, however, a strict connection with the greatness of the community. A grand party is therefore nearly a part of the operations of those who give it, as a boat launch or a hotel opening. Let us suppose a

A member of Congress, a successful banker or contractor, gives a soiree. To this all the beauty, fashion, and distinction of the city is bidden. The statesman is treated with great consideration; he walks the saloon with deference, beauty hanging upon his arm, or he withdraws into some room where he holds the most confidential communication with his friends. But the ladies—dear creatures—are most concerned in these assemblages. It is certainly not unusual to say that many of them look to a winter in Washington as one of the methods for shuffling off the coil of single life. Here, then, they display their accomplishments to the best advantage; here, with the dance, the waltz, and salient flattery, politicians—whose trade is to be loved—find themselves hooked, they hardly know how. The lovely young ladies commit themselves to the cares of political life. At these assemblies, the ladies belonging to the executive family command the highest consideration; those of the departments, the next—but ranking above those of the representatives. It must be understood, however, that the considerations bestowed upon all these dignitaries diminish

ness in geometrical ratio with the term, as that approaches its close; the official adoration naturally diminishes in intensity, both in the ball-room and at the ballot-box. But the entertainments of the *beau monde* are very expensive and elegant, and produce the results for which they are given, just as they do elsewhere.

THE HOTEL-KEEPER—Differs in nothing from his brethren everywhere else, except that he calculates the patience and endurance of his customers more closely. Looking upon his fellow-creatures as his appointed prey, he fleeces them with great equanimity, and bears their reproaches in that cool and philosophical manner with which the winning gamester always listens to the complaints of his victims. Public men come to Washington after public money. The hotel-keeper catches there with the same object. Why should a man who gets twelve or fifteen dollars a day, complain that he has to pay three or four of it for his board? But then to get such poor fare for his money! Perhaps the representative gets as much the worth of his money, as the constituents who employ him. *Quoniam* *sabe*? Such is, however, pretty much the variable of the publican and the sinner everywhere.

THE CONTRACTOR.—Among the most profitable results of the public mine—worked so extensively at the Federal city—may be reckoned the contracts for executing public works. In his respect there is perhaps no population gifted with a mechanical capacity so versatile. There is no work which they will not readily undertake, whether it be to light the coast of California, put a dome on the Capitol, sink Artesian wells in the great desert, or put the machinery into an ocean steamer. As regards the business of printing and binding, however, it would seem that every one of the citizens is competent to undertake and execute, at a moment's warning, all the works of that kind which can be ordered. It is in the great Olympic exercises which take place biennially, for the prizes of printing and binding, that the citizens distinguish themselves. For this a contest, in the words of Mr. Cheeryble, of the most 'tremendous' character takes place, after this manner: First, then, is seen arrayed various gentlemen, who are commended with the honorary title of candidates for the public printing. Does the uninitiated suppose these gentlemen are really and truly the sole recipients of this enormous bounty? Innocent provincial! These gentlemen have very little more to do with the operations than the racehorse has with the stake. They are joint-stock gentlemen, duly portioned out among men who own printing presses—men who have capital—men who can control votes. When the fortunate nomi-

nee is elected, he never looks the gift-horse very carefully in the mouth, but thanks God very piously for that portion of the public provision which he has vouchsafed to set before him. It might be instructive to watch the distribution of this great appropriation, and see a portion of it go perhaps into the pockets of men in ostensible opposition to the power which bestows it. But this sort of corruption is inseparable from a party government; for "wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together." Party is an organized war for administration. The public money is its military chest; what wonder, then, that private cupidity follows, for gain, what the politician pursues for the somewhat higher motive of ambition?

Owing to this aptitude for all sorts of business, the citizens of the Federal Metropolis are deeply and variously interested in the products and property of distant countries. They hold lands in Texas, Nicaragua, and Veragua; shares in Panama, Atrato, Honduras, and Tehuantepec; mines in Ecuador, California, and Australia; lots in cities in every stage, from embryo to maturity; claims against the Government, of every vintage from the Revolutionary war to the Kansas compensation bill.

THE BOARDING-HOUSE.—This institution is usually kept by the widow of the deceased or discharged clerk, for the latter is *civiliter mortuus*. In either case the husband is invisible. This lady has the outfit of spoiled children and mortgaged furniture, indispensable to her calling everywhere. That her sons may get a situation, and her daughters marry a salary, is the burden of her daily litany. Poor lady! She has her troubles. Her husband comes home tipsy, and will not sleep it off in the attic. He will insist upon narrating how he "has been treated," to some quiet boarder, who receives his communication civilly, with an internal decision to pay up and quit at the end of the week. Sometimes her lodgers leave without disturbing the family, and she struggles on, keeping the constable at bay by a system of strategetic movements which would have done credit to the retreat of the Ten Thousand, or Moreau in his splendid *débouchement* upon the Rhine.

THE BANKER AND BROKER.—Closely connected with the lobby member and the partisan is the banker. The partners of this concern are generally of opposite politics, and rarely have pews in the same church. Though this discrepancy might elsewhere lead to unpleasant collisions, it seems here to conduce to the harmony of the co-partnership. Each partner takes the newspaper, and subscribes to the expenses of his own party. Each is deeply intimate with the leaders of his

own party, who are sometimes seen in confidential conversation in the private room of the establishment. Does one of their leaders wish a bill cashed, the friendly partner tells him that though the firm is "discounting nothing," yet such is his interest in the cause, that he will try if it can be done out of his individual means. The next day the leader is informed that he can check for the desired amount. But the concern goes into a speculation—perhaps an Indian claim—perhaps a public contract. The apparent antagonism of the partners is now found to operate admirably like those braces which support a beam; the separation only adds to the strength of their junction. Free-soil and Fire-eater, Alien and American, are found to combine, like lime and sand, into a very solid cement. It builds up the fortunes of the concern, by uniting in its purposes influences of the most opposite character. Sometimes the banker is more exclusive in his associations, and only condescends to skim the cream from the public basin. In such cases he has dinners worthy of a Ude, at which no cover is laid for any guest under the degree of a foreign minister. Here matters of diplomacy and of state are discussed, and he must be a dull observer who cannot *infer* enough to regulate his stock transactions for several months to come.

But it is impossible to describe all the classes to which the public business and expenditures at Washington give rise. They are as peculiar, and yet as distinct, as the wandering robbers of the Zahara, the Zouaves of Algeria, or the hucksters of London.* We must content ourselves, therefore, with a mere allusion to the splendid and luminous gaming-houses. These, though on separate foundations, like the colleges of Oxford, constitute a very charitable institution. It is endowed chiefly by the liberality of the representative department, and the private munificence of generous strangers. They afford a hospitable asylum, at which their victims may eat, drink, talk politics, and play short cards, during the remainder of the congressional session, in which they were broke. These club-rooms are like others of the same character everywhere else, except that in these saloons may be sometimes met very eminent and excellent society, some of whom have been attracted by love of gaming, and others driven by the *res angustæ* of the hotels. But even the professional gamblers addict themselves to the higher excitement of politics, and become warmly interested in public affairs. Sometimes they may have advanced money to a member, and naturally dislike to see

*A race generated by a superannuated civilization, ignorant alike of morality, Christianity, and the language and usages of those among whom they live. See Mayhew's *London Labor and the London Poor*.

men quit public life prematurely. Sometimes they dispute upon the comparative speed of candidates about to take the pack for some congressional district; sometimes they back governor; and there have been instances in which they have even said to have interested themselves in the nomination and canvass for the Presidency. Why should they not? Such chances are open to all. But it is some consolation that these entries are not so successful upon the political turf. Stories are told of their having lost large sums upon State elections. Some politicians outwit them, and so recover some part of the large sums which they have wasted at the gaming-table.

Of the infinity of adventurers who throng the city during a session of Congress, from the modiste who brings on the latest beautiful Parisian work done in Great Jones street, to the exuberant matron who chaperones the belles in the matrimonial market, down to the poor devil who has been deluded by a promise of office which he never gets, we need not speak. The disappointed, the dependent, and the degraded, follow this camp like any other.

CONCLUSION.—But let it not be said that the National Metropolis has no virtues. Quite the contrary; if the society is composed of incongruous materials, much of it is of the most valuable character. Where there have been so many gallant wrecks, there must be rich and precious merchandise among the sordid lumber that strews the beach. Apart from the many excellent and able statesmen and sterling gentlemen who belong to the National Legislature, and constitute a society of which any nation might be proud, there are many citizens of Washington whose taste in literature and the arts is worthy of admiration; and nowhere could be found higher examples of charity, hospitality, and public spirit. These are made manifest by the liberal provision made for the maintenance and education of the unfortunate. Among the office-holders there are gentlemen of the highest order of ability, and we know the greatest intellects and the purest hearts immured in many an iron cell, and bounding their sublunary hopes within the monotonous routine of its daily duties; and there are always some drawn to the Federal Metropolis, by duty or inclination, whose varied adventures in foreign lands, or whose learning, talent, or genial nature, render their society the most attractive in the world. There is always something to admire in themselves or to amuse us in others.

We terminate our sketches of this peculiar people with regret that we have left unfinished many of the finest and most characteristic features of the society and their pursuits—, with proper apologies for all deficiencies, we must adopt

the distich which concludes a rhythmical description of London, of which, though, all that we happen to remember is all that is material to our purpose. The author closes that description by saying :

"Many a bargain, if you'd strike it :
This is London ! How d'y'e like it ?"

ART. IV.—PUBLIC HEALTH IN ITS CONNECTION WITH INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

GEOLOGY AND NATURAL HISTORY OF LOUISIANA—DRAINAGE AND LEVEES — YELLOW FEVER ENGENERED OR PREVENTED—HEALTH OF NEW-ORLEANS.

DR. SAMUEL A. CARTWRIGHT, one of the most ingenious and far-famed of the Southwestern writers, has recently read a paper before the New-Orleans Academy of Science, which afterward appeared in the New-Orleans *Delta*, embracing some very curious and interesting speculations in relation to the natural history, geology, health, &c., of Louisiana and the Southwest.

Having furnished through our pages most of the valuable papers which this gentleman has, from time to time, made public (and one of which will be found in our work entitled "Industrial Resources"), we feel it to be equally a duty and a privilege to condense, or extract largely, from the present paper.

Dr. Cartwright considers that there are archæological and geological curiosities in Louisiana, worthy of a trip across the ocean to inspect ; and adopts the view of Professor Thomassy, that many of the islands upon our seacoast are of a volcanic origin, and were formerly a lake of fire. Under the city of New-Orleans will be found, he says, six valuable books of chronicles, in the shape of six cypress forests, superposed in regular layers ; every year in the flight of centuries being indicated on the subterranean trees.

Nowhere more than in Louisiana is it important that science should be represented in every plan of internal improvement ; and the fearful losses which are entailed by our defective system of leveeing should admonish us of the fact. The physician, the geologist, the hydrographer, the chemist, the microscopist, the botanist, and the geologist, should accompany the civil engineer into the field. Here Dr. Cartwright reaches a subject which is especially a favorite with him. He finds the true mouth of the Mississippi at Ship Island, the approaches to

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by Bayou Terre Aux Bœuf and Manchac the government is closed. The depth of water at the mouth of the river is less now than 100 years ago, as is shown by the oldest maps, and it is always least when the water of the river is

Mississippi River, from the Gulf to New-Orleans, is deep enough to receive the heaviest vessels known to commerce; for instance, the East-Indiamen. Such large vessels as the East-Indiamen could transport from New-Orleans to Europe as cheap, if not cheaper, than smaller vessels which can be got over the bar at Sandy Hook to transport it from New-York to Liverpool. But certain shoals, from eighty to a hundred feet high, obstruct the passage between the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico, effectually preventing the passage of vessels of heavy draught. If it were possible to remove them, nothing could prevent their being speedily formed again by alluvial deposits of the river.

It is believed that a thorough hydrographical and geological survey would demonstrate the practicability of getting large sea vessels up the river through the collateral aqueducts called *colmates*—conduits to put water under the will of man, and which M. Thomé, a distinguished hydraulic engineer of France, has come from Holland, where they are in use, to introduce in Louisiana. If this could not be done, the heavy sea-vessels could at least be put to the use of a Ship Island harbor, and communicate with the city by lighters, conducted into and out of the river by *colmates*. So long as the foreign trade of New-Orleans is in the small carriers, which can be got over the shallow bars at the Balize, that nothing threatens the commerce from annihilation but the cheap transportation of the river itself to the products of the Mississippi Valley."

A great cause of the continual breaking of the levees of the river is found, Dr. Cartwright says, in the burrowing of the muskrat, which build their houses on the base of the levees. The muskrat, for convenience of catching fish, shrimps, &c., when the water rises, they burrow through to save themselves from being drowned. The microscope having proved the efficacy of sugar cane juice in destroying infusorial insects, it suggested the idea of applying it to the destruction of the muskrat, and many miles of coast are now protected by putrescent sugar cane, or crushed sugar cane, at the base of the levees. Dr. Cartwright, it is known, has written some curious and interesting essays upon the sanitary influences of sugar. What he says upon the subject of health is so interesting, that we consent to abridge it:

xii.—The injury to health, from the breaking of a levee and consequent inundation of a large district of country previously not confined to one season, but extends through many. It is perceived at all during the year of its occurrence. The

system is, that there is a reciprocal balance or an equilibrium in every healthy locality among the plants and animals adapted to that locality—the several species of organized beings therein being dependant on one another for their health, sustenance, and existence.

“The inundation of an extensive portion of Lower Louisiana, by the breaking of a levee, necessarily destroys some species of plants and animals, disturbs the equilibrium among the various members, and thereby converts a most healthy region into a sickly one. So well balanced was everything in Louisiana from its first discovery to a comparatively recent period, that all the historians and travellers who visited it—and they were very numerous—were unanimous, through a period of time exceeding a hundred years, in according to it the highest degree of salubrity. Du Pratz's three volumes of history were published more than a century ago—1758. He agrees with La Harpe, the agent of the French government, who arrived in Louisiana, in 1718, remained five years, spent most of the time in New-Orleans and its vicinity, and kept a regular journal, showing that the air was salubrious, and the inhabitants entirely exempt from the fevers which desolated other parts of North America. Lozieres visited Louisiana twice, and wrote two volumes, nearly fifty years after Du Pratz. He confesses his inability to account for the remarkable healthfulness of the country and the longevity of its inhabitants. Babin, who travelled three years in Louisiana, and who published the results of his travels (3 vols., Paris, 1807), notices not only the freedom of the inhabitants from acute diseases, but their almost entire exemption from those dreadful *chronic maladies* which so greatly afflict the people of the rest of the world. The Count de Vergennes, in his Memoir on Louisiana, adds his testimony in favor of its healthfulness. Dr. Dowler found all the above-mentioned works in the State Library prior to its removal to Baton Rouge.

“We have only to look into the mimic oceans made of glass, now so fashionable an amusement of the aristocracy of Europe, to understand, at a glance, why lower Louisiana, after having been regarded for upward of a hundred years as one of the most healthy regions of the world, should have lost its reputation abroad to so great a degree that the people of the upper and middle portions of the Mississippi valley are tapping the river by railroads, under fears that if they trade with New-Orleans they will almost necessarily perish with disease; yet Dr. Dowler's Necropolis of New-Orleans proves that human life was formerly more secure in it than in any other city.

“One look into those mimic oceans shows Louisiana as it was before the hand of man went to work in executing an imperfect system of internal improvements, thereby disturbing the healthful equilibrium previously existing among the members of organized nature within its boundaries. Another look into these mimic oceans, after some officious interference has disturbed the equilibrium among the marine plants and animals therein, will show the woes unnumbered, which the levee builders, State and City authorities, refusing to be guided by the light of science, have brought upon New-Orleans and Louisiana.

moist climate, and the fertility of the soil of the delta, which do not thrive so well, or are not to be found in these latitudes and altitudes. The waters are literally covered with plants, and the animals, though of small size, are exuberant. When a microscope of high power is brought to bear on this new and beautiful world, filled to overflowing with vegetable life in its most gorgeous forms, opens to the view.

It is an admitted fact, that, in most other countries, a few square feet of stagnant water, as that of a mill-pond, occasionally scatter life in its neighborhood. There are no living organisms to consume the impurities of stagnant pools in a high latitude, on the opposite inter—nothing to cause organic life to bound into being; hence, unconsumed impurities, though small in amount, are sufficient to contaminate the air a mile or more around a mill-pond. In the piney woods of the South are apt to become very sickly in the beginning of autumn, in the vicinity of obstructed water. In stagnant pools, the soil being too barren to impart to the water its fertilizing properties which aquatic plants require, or the food on which the microscopic organisms feed. The diseases called malarial are the natural consequences of a deficiency of organized life, and animal life, to consume the impurities; hence bilious, remittent, and congestive fevers scourge the people in the vicinity of a mill-pond, or a handful of decaying animal or vegetable matter, while the inhabitants of Lower Louisiana, although surrounded with stagnant water, swamps, marshes, vegetable and animal matter in great abundance, in every stage of decomposition, are nevertheless in the full enjoyment of vigorous health, and were almost entirely exempt from malarious and zymotic diseases, for a period of several years or more.

Mr. McFarlane and Judge Gaiennie both bear witness to the fact that the citizens of New-Orleans, some thirty-five years ago, were in that portion of the city where Poydras Market now stands, in excellent health, although living in the immediate vicinity of whole squares of filth, and a thousand hogs wallowing therein! Every square inch of that filth, if it be like the filth of the gutters and sewers of the city at the present time, was swarming with microscopic, animal, and vegetable life, sufficient to consume its deleterious elements. The microscope demonstrates that the foulest matter, filled with the most abominable filth, speedily becomes pure and sweet, if it contain a sufficient number of infusorial and cryptogamic organisms, which it always does in this city, as Professor Kiddle, who made the discovery, has verified by actual demonstration, aided by the microscope."

Dr. Cartwright thinks that yellow fever may be prevented from extending, with as much certainty as the small-pox, viz., by insulating it; that is, surrounding it with insusceptible persons. To do this he would allow no person except the accli-

abled, under pain of the workhouse, to have connection with the shipping, as laborers, -etc., during the season of hot weather.

"In order to effect a more thorough drainage of New-Orleans, so essential to health and comfort, he proposes that the ditches be enlarged, instead of attention being exclusively given to the drainage of the swamps in the rear. This is the course pursued upon the plantations, which is always successful.

"By means of *colmates*, the most extensive drainage could be effected in Louisiana, at small expense. These are artificial aqueducts, with contrivances to put water under effectual control, as explained in the letter of the Dutch engineer to Professor Thomassy, given in a late number of the Review. Thus, by throwing the water over the fields, and regulating its stay and its deposits, great power would be exercised in enriching and raising the soil, etc.

Dr. Cartwright would apply the system of *colmates* to what he calls "Malay Louisiana," or that extensive shaking prairie, reaching down the Mississippi to the Balize, and spreading out almost indefinitely. For a distance of 80 miles, the Mississippi is allowed to carry its invaluable sediment past that prairie, to throw it into the sea, or raise bars for the obstruction of our commerce! A territory large as Delaware could here be speedily reclaimed to the uses of man. The term Malay is applied by him to the region, because its inhabitants are generally such. They reside on the banks of the natural canals, living in houses made of slender posts and palmetto leaves, and feeding upon fish, etc.

What the Doctor says upon the generation of yellow fever in New-Orleans, and its connection with the insect world, is so novel and peculiar, that we give it entire :

"THE YELLOW FEVER—*How Caused*.—Ever since the yellow fever has become such a terrible plague to New-Orleans, there has been an incessant war waged against filth, which has proved to be most expensive to the tax-payers, and worse than useless as a preventive of that disease. Almost every measure taken to prevent yellow fever in New-Orleans has been dictated by the exploded theories of the speculative philosophy of the last century. The obsolete ideas of contagion and non-contagion have alternately ruled, and both have failed, because neither is true.

"For a great many years past, the sediment in the gutters and sewers has been condemned as filth, and its removal strictly enjoined. It is accordingly shoveled out on each side of the streets every day, and left to dry in the sun, when it is carted off. If the microscope had been consulted, it would have proved that every shovelful of the alleged filth contains more living beings, in the form of infusoria,

than there are inhabitants on the globe, abundantly supplied with microscopic flora, to afford them sustenance. These living infusoria and living cryptogamia are not filth, because, when put in the foulest water, they speedily purify it; but the dead infusoria and dead cryptogamia, killed by exposure to the sun on the sidewalk, are filth, and cannot fail to load the air with foul exhalations from their decomposition under the influence of heat and moisture. It has been alleged that the sediment would fill up the gutters, and render them useless as drains, unless shoveled out as fast as it accumulates. Hydrodynamics is full of powers—stronger than the spade—to remove it, if its laws were studied and put in force. It would remove the sediment out of the gutters and sewers, and would not destroy the microscopic flora by exposing it to the sun in the streets, with the countless myriads of organized animals which feed upon it, to die, putrefy, and contaminate the air, but would move it rapidly through the gutters and sewers, by throwing into them a sufficient quantity of Mississippi river water, the purest water in the world. This can readily be done, as the surface of the water is at all times nearly as high as, and about half the year higher than, the surface of the soil, and there is in the rear of the city sufficient hydraulic power to pump it into the canals leading into Lake Pontchartrain.

“It is not to be expected that the world will immediately receive all the truths revealed by the microscope, and act upon them. An authority, older than the microscope, declared the existence of a tree, “which, when cast into the bitter waters of Marah, the waters were made sweet.” Moses does not say that the tree grows everywhere, or that in and of itself it sweetened the waters. He simply announces, as a truth, the existence in nature of such a tree growing at Marah. No one seems to have believed him literally, or to have taken the trouble to look abroad into nature to find it; yet, virtually, such a tree, though branchless and rootless, but not leafless, has been discovered by Professor J. L. Riddell, as really existing in nature, and growing abundantly in New-Orleans. Professor Riddell does not say that the tree which he discovered, and named *oscillaria*, grows in all putrescent places, or that, in and of itself, it sweetens and purifies the foul and bitter waters of the sewers and gutters; but he does say that it grows in New-Orleans, and the waters are made sweet and pure, in a short time, in all instances where they come in contact with the *oscillaria*, and the animals feeding on it. In the hot season of the year very dense forests of the microscopic tree, called *oscillaria*, are found growing in the sewers and gutters of New-Orleans. Numberless animals, of different species, herbivorous and carnivorous, are seen roaming through those forests. So close together do the trees stand, that the larger animals have difficulty in penetrating the forests. The trees themselves, instead of being dry and dead, actually seem to possess exquisite sensibility, exceeding that of the sensitive plant; and what is still more wonderful, they manifest some degree of intelligence! Thus, they quiver and wince at the approach and touch of the herbivorous animals which feed upon them, while they manifest little or no sensitiveness at all to

ward the fiercer carnivora inhabiting the forests, the latter often climbing up the trees to avoid their foes, or simply for the pleasure of taking a ride in the tree-tops, which are constantly waving from side to side.

"The oscillaria, which is a genus pertaining to the natural order algae, largely predominates in the microscopic forests of the gutters and sewers of New-Orleans; but it would not be safe to say that that alone sweetens and purifies the waters, to the exclusion of other vegetable growth, and the microscopic fauna. The latter may have inhabited the trees at Marah, and have been the principal agents in sweetening its bitter waters. Nor is it material to know whether the virtue to purify the water resides in the oscillaria itself, in other flora associated with it, or the animals feeding upon it; in either case, its forests should be spared. Those who do not believe in Moses, or the microscope, have had time to learn in the dear school of experience, that the destruction of the forests of oscillaria, with all the animals contained therein, under the filth ordinance, cannot prevent, but *may have caused the yellow fever*.

"The connection of geology and natural history, with the health of man, beast, insect, and vegetation, was typified by the plagues of Egypt: What is a crevasse, but a smiting of the waters, and turning them to blood, as far as many species, families, and tribes of plants and animals are concerned? Any physical cause which greatly disturbs the equilibrium among plants and animals, of any locality, may breed a plague of some kind or other. Geologists have discovered, in the fresh water portion of Louisiana, many flora and testacea, common to salt water. They flourish there from the saline particles in the earth. A crevasse, by pouring upon them for months in succession a large body of fresh water, causes great numbers of them to become sickly, or to perish. The rich and fresh deposit left by the waters of the crevasse, calls into being myriads of purely fresh-water worms, insects, and infusoria, and cryptogamic organisms, doomed to inevitable destruction as soon as terrone dynamics imparts to the earth its former saline properties—causing plagues from their putrefaction, until the healthful equilibrium among the plants and animals, natural to the locality, can be restored.

"Since a succession of crevasses have occurred in the vicinity of New-Orleans, and filth and trash have been used to fill up swamp lots, thereby obstructing the natural current of the rain water, the yellow fever has put on wings. To clip them, and drive pestilence out of the land, it will be necessary to ascertain what works are required to give a good drainage, and to secure a permanent equilibrium in organized life, in such a locality as New-Orleans and its vicinity, between fresh water and salt, and on a plateau of high land and swamp. The Sauve Crevasse, by converting the brackish water of the Lakes Pontchartrain and Borgne into fresh, and those of the Mississippi Sound into brackish, sickened the fish and oysters, and made them very unwholesome articles of food—causing cholera and yellow fever in many of those who ate them. A fish dinner, in summer, was apt to result in a severe attack of yellow fever, and an oyster supper in the fall and winter, in cholera.

"Disease requires a nidus for its incubation, in the animal economy. Unwholesome food and drinks taken into the stomach, and the respiration of a vitiated atmosphere, throw into the economy the materials out of which it constructs its nidus. The zymotic germs of some disease or other will seldom be wanting to supply the nest, when once formed. The yellow fever, in New-Orleans, is generated, with but few exceptions, in the following manner: Unacclimated persons, just from a long sea-voyage, mostly from Ireland and Germany, with scorbutic blood loosening their teeth and corroding their gums, and with the contagion of European typhus or ship fever adhering to their garments, crowd around the ships and steamboats entering the port, to hire themselves to load and unload the vessels, and to perform all manner of drudgery work on the levee, and in other parts of the city. They do so because they can get higher wages for work done in the hot sun, on the levee, or in the filthy holds of ships, than for other kind of labor, where they would not be exposed to the sun, or to a putrescent atmosphere. It is quite immaterial whether the ships come from the West Indies, Rio Janeiro, France, Germany, or Great Britain; whether the steamboats are from Galveston, in Texas, or Pittsburg, in Pennsylvania; or whether the vessels be the common flatboats from the upper country, laden with corn or other Western produce, in a damaged condition; in either case, the wages of labor is *death* to the unacclimated; because such labor, performed by such unacclimated individuals, generates the yellow fever in their systems. The first cases, in 1853, were generated by immigrants on board of ships from Europe, which had not touched at any infected port. The zymotic germs, when once generated, are not slow to seek a nidus in other unacclimated persons, which is found in the families and associates of those laborers who have been employed on the levee and the shipping. To save rents, this class of people huddle together in dilapidated tenements, mostly sleeping on the floor, which they literally cover, at night. In some seasons, as in that of 1857, the disease is entirely confined to this class of persons, in some particular district. That year it killed ninety-nine of them, and did not extend to other classes, or go beyond a small district in the neighborhood of Tchoupitoulas Market. Such has been its character, at most of its visitations—a local malady of a very limited duration—confined chiefly to some particular district of the city, and to particular classes of individuals. But in 1853, 1855, and 1858, its germs seem to have put on wings, because it flew in every direction, sparing no other class of individuals than the well acclimated. What gave its zymotic germs wings? Was it a pestilential state of the atmosphere in the city produced by the dead animals and filth carted out on the back lots, obstructing the exit of the rain water to the swamp? or a more general vitiation of the air, caused by the numerous crevasses which have occurred of late years, producing a loss of balance among the members of organized life in the country on the lower stem of the Mississippi river? Was it the wanton destruction of the oscillaria, and the death and putrefaction of the immense and inconceivable number of animals inhabiting its

aquatic, microscopic forests? Was it some terrene poison, forced into the atmosphere by geological dynamics, or brought up by the electricity of the earth, by deeply wounding the earth with mattocks and spades, in the hot season of the year? Or was it owing to the engrafting of the communicable jail or ship fever of Europe, upon the yellow typhus of America, by the foreign immigrants? The solution of the above questions is, fortunately, not of paramount importance, because the yellow fever, in its fearful spreading form, can be with as much certainty prevented, as small-pox, *and by means as simple and as cheap.*"

ART. V.—LIBERIA AND THE COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

NO. I.

Quizzes an elaborate document has been recently prepared, by the well-known agriculturist and writer, Edmund Ruffin, of Virginia, of which he has been kind enough to send us an early copy, entitled "African Colonization Unveiled."

Mr. Ruffin will not need to be informed by us, in the present article, that our views are entirely coincident with his own, in this matter, as we have, on several occasions, in the earlier volumes of the Review, combated the colonization movement very earnestly, as one calculated to entail mischief rather than good; in that—

First.—It tended to promote new emancipations, rather than to provide an asylum, as its advocates asserted, for the existing free blacks, who were the last to avail themselves of its proposed advantages.

Second.—It held out promises for Africa, which were never to be realized, since the colony, sustained at enormous expense, exhibits, after nearly forty years' experiment, no self-sustaining vitality.

In proof of these propositions, we pointed to the official reports and statistics of the Society, and to the testimony of unprejudiced persons, not in its interest, who have, from time to time, visited Liberia.

In particular, in a note to the *Compendium of the Census*, page 63, we stated that while 7,592 persons had been sent to the colony up to 1852, the report for that year fixed the entire population at "about 6,000 or 7,000," a decline of one in seven, instead of a duplication, as would have been the result, or even a triplication, under any propitious state of things; and that of these 7,592 emigrants, *only one seventeenth part were from the non-slaveholding States, and much more than half were emancipated with a view to colonization!*

Having said this much, we are prepared to give the right

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to Mr. Ruffin, in his exposé, which we shall proceed to present to our readers, expressing, at the same time, some regret at having to disagree with so many amiable and excellent gentlemen at the South, who have been, from the noblest motives, the main props and pillars of the association. The next will be presented in the April, May, June, and July numbers of the Review, under the following heads:—

I.—“*Influences operating to originate and aid the African Colonization movement, and the avowed designs, but main operations of the Society, and tendency of policy.*”

II.—“*General operations of the Colonization Society, in planting and maintaining the colony of Liberia, and the general results; the progress of emigration, and good prosperous condition of the colonists.*”

III.—“*Actual condition of Liberia; results of negro independence; the true needs; climate of Liberia, as affecting the health of the colonists; negro colonization impossible; and how it may be possible to save and utilize Liberia.*”

IV.—“*Confirmatory evidence from Liberian records; and cost of the colony and public to the people of the United States.*”

The recent debate in Congress over the appropriation to provide means of support in Liberia, for returned Africans, has excited new and anxious feelings throughout the South; for Congress can apply \$75,000 to this purpose, they can apply millions, and seventy millions, should in time the rapacious demands of the abolitionists, who will be enlisted in the movement, when it assumes a money aspect, exact it.—[ED.]

THE INFLUENCES WHICH OPERATED TO ORIGINATE, AND TO AID THE AFRICAN COLONIZATION MOVEMENT.

The American Revolution was the fertile source of the best growth and fruition of civil liberty, and of the establishment and security of individual rights, which have since made such great advances, not in America, but in Europe. But while great political truths were worked out by great minds, and were put in practical operation by devoted and self-sacrificing patriotism, and great and invaluable efforts for human liberty, improvement, and happiness, were thus achieved, there also sprang up accompanying errors, of reasoning and doctrine, which since have brought evil fruits, and threaten disastrous consequences. In the great and general fermentation of opinions and doctrines, the foul and feculent matters which were thrown up did not subsequently sink to the bottom, and remain concealed in harmless dregs, but remained upon and among, and served to adulterate and debase the great and best products of the general process. The wisest and purest of reformers, by the heat of their zeal to oppose evil, are often urged to press their doctrines beyond the proper limits, so that both truth and expediency would prescribe. Thus it has happened that the superfluities and excesses of theoretical opinions, and erroneous deductions, of the great founders of American freedom,

to which the originators themselves attached too little importance to scrutinize severely, and which, in their times, were of no practical application or use, have since been applied in practice, by smaller and baser minds, and threaten a harvest of evil that may outweigh many of the practical, designed, and great benefits which our country and the world owe to the wise and great men who commenced and carried through the American Revolution.

The most injurious, in their consequences, of such erroneous deductions from true principles and sound propositions, are to be found in the now generally received doctrines of the equal natural rights, and political rights, of all the male citizens or members of a free or republican government—or that every man has, or ought to have, the right to exercise an equal influence in the direction of all public affairs, and of the government of the country. The next, and a legitimate deduction from the admission of this now popular doctrine, would be, that every woman has natural, and ought to have political rights, equal with those of men. And this doctrine is already entertained, and has made much progress, in the Northern States of this Confederation. There, together with every other heresy of doctrine, in politics, morals, and religion, the cause of "woman's rights" has numerous and zealous advocates—though no one has raised his or her approving voice, in the more conservative and sober-minded Southern States. It is also in the Northern or non-slaveholding States, that the worst consequences of the claimed equal rights of men are realized. For this doctrine is now established in all their constitutions of government, and all political power is thereby vested in the majority of the adult male population. Such majority—and usually many more than a majority—of every great community, or country, must, of necessity, consist of very ignorant, and, also, for a large portion, of unprincipled or debased and vicious individuals—and who, also, because of their poverty, have but little interest in the financial policy and welfare of their country. To this mere numerical majority, without regard to the qualification or fitness of the members to judge, or direct, has been surrendered the political power of every one of the Northern States. But, as the makers of the constitutions of government well knew, the great mass, ostensibly or nominally invested with all the political power of the State, cannot possibly exercise it, or avail themselves of their constitutional rights, even for a single day—and they hasten to yield the exercise of power, and also the entire direction of themselves, with blind faith and servile obedience, to the interested demagogues who will most successfully flatter their ignorance, and who can best agree with each other to share among themselves, the political power and public plunder, which are thus acquired at the expense of the so-called "sovereign people," and masters of the so-called "servants of the people." In the Southern States, the more recently formed, or "reformed," constitutions of government, are no better, in this respect, than those of the Northern States—or so far as their operation was designed by "reforming" demagogues, and as their powers are expressed in words. But in these Southern States we fortunately possess—and thereby have been

inly protected from this flood of evil—a barrier and safeguard more actual for defence than any written constitutions, or than this story of equal political rights is powerful for evil aggression. Most fortunately, for the preservation of the political freedom and safety of the ruling class, known as citizens by the constitution, the lowly, and necessarily the most ignorant and degraded class in the South, are not, as in the North, citizens and voters, but are negro slaves, who have no political rights. Thus, much the greatest amount of ignorance, vice, and carelessness for the public weal, is entirely excluded from all direction of or influence upon public affairs, and from every political function. And by this one great conservative measure of exclusion, in the slaveholding States, the popular vote and action are as much purified and exalted, as could be in the so-called “free States,” by any constitutional provision that could serve to designate, and exclude from the polls, the worst and most degraded half of its male population. Such free or republican governments as the Southern States would present, if all their slave and free negro population had votes equally with the whites, now are, soon will be, the governments of the Northern and non-slaveholding States.

Among the false and dangerous but yet legitimate deductions from the broad doctrine of the equal natural rights of man, there subsequently was started the then novel claim of freedom for the negro slaves. This deduction from general principles was at first set forth quietly, obscurely, and regarded as a mere theoretical opinion, impossible to be reduced to practice. The principle was admitted, whether by design of some, or the carelessness and inadvertence of all, by the fathers of the Revolution and of American independence. From the warm and zealous advocacy of the equal English rights of the free people of the colonies, it was but a step of hurried reasoning by analogy, to advocate the equal natural rights of all mankind. This folly, which attended the otherwise grave and profound political wisdom of the great men of those times, was admitted perhaps by few through design, but certainly through the inadvertence of the many, amidst the general prefatory declamation of the Declaration of Independence—and, without a word of objection by Southern slaveholders, who no more then thought of legislating for, or producing, the freedom and equal political rights of their negro slaves, than they did of their horses and oxen. Yet this mere sounding verbiage, these empty reverberations of a baseless and obscure theoretical doctrine, which did not then attract enough notice to arouse opposition or denial, to what was probably deemed the mere superfluous and unmeaning embellishments of a frothy rhetoric, have since served as the shield of defence, for the new and zealous party of abolitionists of negro slavery, and the arsenal to supply their chosen weapons to assail that institution.

In the earlier times of British and European history, there was scarcely raised a voice, either in Europe or America, to question the expediency or morality of the institution of negro slavery—or even to oppose the African slave-trade, then in full operation. The first

serious opposition to both was begun, and grew, with the doctrines of the men, and with the movements, of the American Revolution—and almost exclusively in these now United States of America. Thus the opposition to negro slavery had commenced, and was gradually extending in slaveholding America, long before the same ideas had been recognized in England. By the latter country, the African slave-trade was still carried on extensively, and its morality scarcely questioned but by a few, long after nearly all the American slaveholding States had abolished the trade for themselves. The people of the Southern States, who had scarcely any agricultural labor, other than that of negro slaves, could not have divested themselves of that labor, without certain and general ruin to themselves and to the country. Of course, the practical extinction of slavery was scarcely thought of by any, and was advocated by none. Even if any had then deemed slavery an enormous wrong, no individual slaveholder would have condemned himself for the existence of a national evil (or even a national sin), which he had had no agency in establishing—and which, indeed, was forced upon the colonies by the avarice and power of the ruling mother-country. But almost every man of good feeling and cultivated mind, in later time, came (under the teaching and influence of the growing anti-slavery school) to consider the institution of negro slavery as a great evil, public and private, and whether viewed as a political, moral, or economical question—and which, if possible to remove, ought to be removed, at any cost that would not be intolerably injurious to the welfare of the community. Such opinions grew to be general in the Southern States; and previous to 1820 (perhaps as late as 1830), they were almost universal in Virginia. Some individuals went farther—and were ready to share in all the sacrifices necessary for general emancipation, upon some one or other of the impossible or ruinous plans proposed and advocated by different wild and fanatical philanthropists. In England, which now had abolished the African slave-trade, and in the Northern States, which had got rid of slaves (never very profitable to them except to sell)—and neither of which countries had then remaining their previous mercantile interest in the profits of the slave-trade—there was no sense of self-preservation, nor any lighter interest, to oppose the growing hostility to slavery. Nothing is easier, or more inviting to self-complacency, than for us to declare benevolent feelings and impulses, and to urge their being put in practice, when at other people's expense. Therefore it was quite natural that the Northern States and England, when no longer having any interest to maintain and to increase negro slavery, should carry their benevolent opposition to it to the extent of their wildest fanaticism—and call for its extinction, even at the risk (or with the certainty) of the utter ruin of the master race in the slaveholding States.

Under the influence of such incitements, the now practical abolition doctrines, and the present abolition party, of the Northern States, were brought into existence and action, and grew and strengthened, until they are now supported by the greater number of votes of every Northern State. This growing power, threatening evil and

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with its success, to the whole slaveholding States, at length produced a reaction in the minds of the Southern people generally. began, for the first time, to inquire into, and carefully to study the whole subject of slavery, through the means of facts and sound reasoning—and not, as before, under the deceptive influence of a theory, and sickly sentimentality and mistaken philanthropy. reaction began about 1820 (the time of the first abolition movement, through and by aid of Federal legislation in the enactment of the Missouri “compromise” and unconstitutional restriction—and only received its first vigorous and effective impulse from the publication of Professor Dew’s “*Essay on Slavery*,” the earliest also one among the ablest vindications of the institution that have been published. Since then, the change of opinion has been both partial and general. Formerly, it would have been difficult to find, in Virginia, a man of education who did not deem slavery both a public and private evil. Now there are almost as few such men who do not deem the institution a positive and great benefit, as there formerly who held it to be otherwise than the great evil of the

1816, when the “American Society for Colonizing the Free People of Color of the United States” was formed, and had enunciated its purpose and policy, and commenced its operations, the universal public sentiment was best suited to favor the infant organization and its avowed objects. The policy and the scheme, which were proposed to be supported, had been originated in Virginia. The first and principal early patrons and advocates of the Society were slaveholders. The avowed object of the Society, as indicated by its name, was to remove from the United States, by inducing voluntary emigration, the free negroes, and to colonize them as an independent community in Africa. This class (formed by earlier generations of slaves, which had been induced by the mistaken policy of their masters), had become numerous, and a great nuisance to most of the Southern States, and especially to Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware. With but a few praiseworthy exceptions the free negroes were, as they continue to be, generally indolent, idle, and worthless as laborers or producers—and, in numerous instances, drunken, vicious, and frequent subjects for criminal justice. In their peculiar position, they served to render the slaves discontented with their more constrained, though really much better condition; facilitated and encouraged their thefts, and other violations of the law.

The low degradation of the free negroes, in ignorance, idleness, and vice, instead of being ascribed, as truth would require, to their negro blood and propensities, and the natural inferiority of their intellect, left without the government and direction of a capable and virtuous race, was charged to their inferior social and political condition and their being kept down in the scale of society by the superior intelligence and close neighborhood of the white race. In the face of the many proofs to the contrary that even then existed (though Hayti at that time sunk to half her present depth of degradation, and the experiment of emancipation in the West Indies had not been

commenced); the near approach to, if not full equality of the negro intellect to the white, was then generally believed in, to an extent that now would seem both incredible and absurd. The European and Northern fanatical philanthropists then fully believed (and they still pretend to believe) that the negro is naturally equal in mental power to the white man; and that equal advantages of education and position would serve to show the equality in all results. If the benevolent slaveholders did not go so far, they at least believed that the negro race was capable of being so far instructed and improved, as to be self-directing and self-supporting, if in an independent community. The benefit to the world, and especially to benighted and savage Africa, of a civilized and industrious colony being there planted, and flourishing, was a further and more captivating inducement to lovers of the human race; and all Christian philanthropists were still more interested in thus offering, with the supposed best prospects of success, the gospel and Christianity, to the sixty millions of savage pagans and brutalized idolators that inhabit Africa.

At that time, too, individual acts of emancipation of slaves were generally esteemed, not only evidences of piety and virtue in the emancipators, but also, if accompanied by removal from the country, as being beneficial to public interests, by lessening the whole number of slaves, and thereby rendering more easy the future, though far remote, total removal of slavery, then generally deemed to be a public benefit. For this reason, there was still another (so-called) benefit expected of this Society, in its offered asylum in Africa serving to invite and encourage the subsequent emancipation of numerous slaves. This, and other more extended objects of like kind, were set forth in the speeches and publications of active and zealous agents or members of the Society. And such declarations, while they served strongly to invite and encourage the aid and coöperation of those who were most opposed to slavery, as an evil, a wrong, and a sin, did not at first offend, or excite the suspicion or opposition of slaveholders the most opposite in opinion—because even these, at that early time, generally deemed slavery an evil, and hoped for its ultimate safe extinction, although they could not see, and would not seek, through certain loss and danger, a way to that desired end.

For these different reasons, operating on men of very different views, there were, at first, many persons disposed to become zealous supporters of the Colonization Society; while almost none opposed it, or seemed to think that there was anything in the scheme, or in its probable consequences, that called for opposition, or even required scrutiny. It had among its movers and founders, and continued to gain the names and ostensible if not more efficient support of, many of the chief men of the various States—and every name that could have influence on the public, and was permitted to be used, was made use of in the list of officers or dignitaries or prominent friends of the Society. As almost every man took it for granted that the Society was a good thing, and an institution of high position, he was complimented by his name being asked for its support—and few would deny the request, especially as that alone, or very little more,

uld serve to place the name prominently on the list of the much
ded and eminent patrons of the benevolent scheme. Many high-
nding names have been thus used (and, perhaps, some without
ve), of persons who contributed but little else to the Society.
e more obscure but active functionaries of the Society, who, in or
ough the Board of Managers at Washington, have really directed
affairs, and the policy, and the operations of the Society, were
ays working on prominent political men, and easily gained the
or of all. The favor of President Monroe was by far the most
ortant and efficient; and it served to preserve the very existence
the colony subsequently planted, in its early and most feeble con-
ion—as will be shown hereafter.

THE AVOWED DESIGNS, AND THE REAL AND MAIN OPERATION OF
THE COLONIZATION SOCIETY, AND THE TENDENCY OF ITS POLICY.

There never was a new scheme, or association for its furtherance,
eived with more general favor, than the American Colonization
ciety. The persons who most opposed slavery, and most desired
extinction, and they who were most interested in its present and
stinued existence, were alike friendly to the Society, and for
posite expected and promised results respectively favored by their
posite views. The Society was presented, though with caution,
two different aspects, to individuals, and to sections of the Union,
ring different and conflicting opinions in regard to slavery—and in
h manner as to seem favorable to each party separately. For
first and avowed and always claimed objects and designs of the
lonization Society, as presented in its early official papers (pro-
ding from the Board of Managers, or resolutions of the Society
opted in general meetings), there need not be many authorities
ed. The record of testimony for this purpose is full and clear.
The American Society for Colonizing the Free People of Color of
United States," is the legal title, recited in the first article of its
stitution. The second article more fully and particularly declares
at "The object to which its attention is to be *exclusively* directed,
o promote and execute a plan for colonizing (with their own con-
t) *the free people of color residing in our country*, to Africa, or such
ier place as Congress shall deem expedient." The same object
is held forth in the first "Memorial of the President and Board of
nagers" of the Society to Congress in 1817 (republished in the
pers appended to Mr. Kennedy's *Report to the House of Representatives*
1813, Doc. 283, p. 208), and the advantages to this country of
moving the free people of color were therein stated at some length.
cidental benefits which were expected (and which would be ad-
tted as such, and highly appreciated by all) were also presented,
the expected indirect working of the colonization scheme to sup-
ss the African slave-trade—and, by its influence, to civilize and
ristianize the neighboring savage nations of Africa. Not an intin-
tion was there given of any ulterior object. But in a later
morial (cf 1828, republished in *House of Rep., Document 283 of*
3, p. 172) to Congress, the Managers, become bolder or less
ious, added something more. They therein say: "The object it

[The American Colonization Society] proposes to accomplish is, the removal to Africa, with their own consent, of such people of color within the United States as are already free, and of such others *as the humanity of individuals, and the laws of the different States, may hereafter liberate.*" Even this extended purpose, repeated as it had been before, and since has continued to be, by functionaries and friends of the Colonization Society, in many public speeches at the annual meetings or otherwise, did not at first excite any opposition or suspicion. The manumission of slaves was still legal in sundry States, and would still proceed. It would be not less beneficial to the community and to slaveholders, that the later manumitted negroes should be removed, than the earlier. But the people of the South did not, from these indications, suspect that the leading and most influential members of the Society, from the beginning, had in view the future entire extinction of negro slavery in the United States, to be accompanied, indeed, as professed, by the deportation of all the negroes (visionary and even impossible as was this latter measure); and still less did slaveholders infer that the agents of the Society would be active though covert propagandists of anti-slavery doctrines, and secret yet efficient advocates for persuading weak-minded philanthropists that the emancipation of their slaves would be an act of very high merit, humanity, benevolence, and piety. The private and secret manner of such communication and action, necessarily and effectually precludes the facts being proved by direct testimony. The facts, in general, can only be inferred from the character and supposed anti-slavery opinions of employed Northern agents—the particular slaveholders with whom they mostly associated and might influence—and especially from the subsequent effects witnessed, and much more in the later than the earlier years of the Society, in numerous testamentary and other manumissions of large numbers of slaves. But there is plenty of proof of more open action of functionaries and friends, showing the general spirit of the Society being in favor of extending emancipation and putting an end to slavery. While no individual, or body, has loudly and distinctly advised slaveholders to emancipate their slaves, there has scarcely been a written report, or speech, or other public declaration, proceeding from the agents and friends of the Society, in which individual acts of emancipation have been referred to, that the occasion was not used to highly laud the action and the emancipator. Such acts being thus always highly praised, as showing evidences of most exalted humanity, charity, and piety—and the (perhaps otherwise obscure) donors being thus made conspicuous for their virtues throughout the Christian world, could not fail to operate as a powerful stimulant, not only to the good, but also to the evil principles which influence mankind—as vanity, ostentation, self-righteousness, and self-worship—to thus elevate and perpetuate their fame, by their adding to the number of manumitted slaves—whose welfare and happiness have generally been greatly impaired, if not totally sacrificed on this shrine of false benevolence and humanity, and of evil both to the slaves and to our country. It is a strong evidence that such effects have been in a

great degree the direct result of the teachings of the Colonization Society and its friends, when it is seen that the manumissions of slaves in Virginia, and especially in large numbers by individual donors and by testamentary bequest, have greatly increased in latter years. In the earlier years of the Society, there were comparatively very few. Yet, if the avowed opinions of Mr. C. F. Mercer and others were correct, that many masters, before 1816, would have gladly emancipated their slaves, if having such an asylum for them as the Colonization Society would afford, the number of new manumissions ought to have been much greater as soon as the asylum was open—and not, as is the fact, at twenty and thirty or more years after the open and secret machinery of the Society had been in operation.

Still more plain and undeniable than of any of these named influences, are the evidences that the leading, and most distinguished, and influential, and early friends of the Society, have looked to it, and advocated its support, as the means for utterly destroying the institution and existence of negro slavery in the United States. Such sentiments have been uttered by many in public speeches and reports, published among the transactions of the Society, and by direction of its Board of Managers. Numerous other like expressions, though from less respected sources, or, perhaps, proceeding from obscure individuals, have received the official impress and virtual authorization of the Society, by being published in the "*African Repository*," which periodical publication, of very extensive circulation, is both the property and organ of the American Colonization Society, and must be presumed to be, in every article it publishes, the mouth-piece of the central power and head of the Society, the Board of Managers at Washington. It will be enough, for sustaining my charge in this particular respect, to refer to the words or opinions of but a few prominent officers or ardent friends of the Colonization Society, either uttered in general meetings or otherwise, published through its organ. Like examples, from less distinguished sources, might be offered in any number.*

At the first annual meeting of the American Colonization Society, in Washington, the president, Judge Bushrod Washington, in

* This is a named procedure has been so common, and latterly so undisguised, that the Rev. Philip Slaughter, of Virginia, principal agent of the Colonization Society of Virginia (who, though a zealous advocate for the colonization scheme, is also a loyal son of the South), has deemed it necessary, on two different occasions (as I have seen accidentally)—the one may have been more, as the need for such action has never intermitted—, to rebuke this abuse. At the annual meeting of the American Colonization Society of 1852, the report of the proceedings (in the *African Repository*, at p. 100, for April, 1852), states as follows:

"The Rev. Mr. Slaughter presented the following preamble and resolution, which were adopted:

"Whereas, the Constitution of the American Colonization Society declares that the object to which its attention is exclusively directed, is 'to promote and execute a plan for colonizing, with their own consent, the free people of color residing in our country. In Africa,' therefore

"Resolved, That the publication of schemes of emancipation, and arguments in their favor, in the *African Repository*, and other official documents of this Society, is a departure from our fundamental law, and should be excluded from such documents."

This resolution was adopted, and, as it appears, without a word of objection. Yet it was totally disregarded afterward, as its object had been previously. In consequence, as I find again in my few detached numbers of the *African Repository*, (at p. 74, for March, 1856), at the annual meeting of the American Colonization Society, the rebuke was renewed by Mr. Slaughter—and with as little of its desired effect as before.

his opening speech, from the chair, introduced the following expressions :

"The effect of this institution [the American Colonization Society], if its prosperity shall equal our wishes, will be alike propitious to every interest of our domestic society ; and *should it lead, as we may fairly hope it will, to the slow but gradual abolition of slavery, it will wipe from our political institutions the only blot which stains them.*"

At the same meeting, the Hon. C. F. Mercer, of Virginia, in advocating the claims of the Colonization Society to public favor, and urging the reasons for supporting it, said : "Many thousand individuals in our native State, as you well know, Mr. President, are restrained from manumitting their slaves, as you and I are, by the melancholy conviction that they cannot yield to the *suggestions of humanity* without manifest injury to their country"—which difficulty and great obstacle to extensive emancipation, the policy of the Colonization Society was expected to remove.

In an elaborate letter and argument, to the like general purport, addressed to the American Colonization Society, Gen. R. G. Harper, of Maryland, said :

"The advantages of this undertaking [of the Colonization Society] to which I have hitherto adverted, are confined to ourselves. They consist in ridding us of the free people of color, and *preparing the way for getting rid of the slaves and of slavery.*"

The Hon. Henry Clay, then president of the American Colonization Society, at its tenth annual meeting, January, 1837, in his opening address (published by the Society) presented an elaborate argument to show the feasibility and the expediency of the whole negro race being removed from the United States. The very high position and reputation of this gentleman, and the great influence of his name and opinions, will make it proper to quote more full extracts from his speech.

After having submitted calculations, which served (as he maintained) to show the easy practicability of removing to Africa all the then free negro population from the United States, Mr. Clay proceeded to apply the same mode of calculation to the slaves, as follows :

"Assuming the future increase to be at the rate of three per cent. per annum the annual addition to the number of slaves in the United States, calculated upon the returns of the last census (1,538,128) is 46,000. Applying the data which have already been stated and explained, in relation to the colonization of *free* persons of color from the United States to Africa, to the aggregate annual increase of both *bond and free of the African race*, and the result will be found *most encouraging*. The total number of the annual increase, of both descriptions, is 52,000. The total expense of transporting that number to Africa, (supposing no reduction of present prices) [which had been before stated at \$29] would be \$1,040,000," &c. * * * "And this quantity [of tonnage] would be still further reduced by embracing opportunities of incidental employment of vessels belonging both to mercantile and *military marines*. But, is the annual application of \$1,040,000, and the employment of 65,000 or even 130,000 tons of shipping, considering the magnitude of the object, beyond the ability of this country? *Is there a patriot, looking forward to its domestic quiet, its happiness, and its glory, that would not cheerfully contribute his proportion of the burden to accomplish a purpose so great and so humane?*

This extract, alone, is enough to strip bare, and expose the false pretence set up for the American Colonization Society, when soothing down Southern opposition or alarmed interests, that the policy of the society is, as at first announced, the removal of *free* negroes to Africa only. The ulterior design or object of general emancipation (whether by purchase or otherwise) need not be set forth more plainly than in this speech of the distinguished president of the Society, and as endorsed, by its reception and publication, by the managers of the Society. It is not my business here, nor is it needed, to expose the errors of Mr. Clay's estimates, and the impossibility of carrying through the scheme, were it ever so desirable for this country ; and the enormous cruelty, unprecedented in the annals of Asiatic despotism, of annually removing to remote exile (to say nothing of cost of life, and other sufferings to be there encountered) of the whole *actual increase*, necessarily including all the female children before their reaching maturity of age, of an entire race, amounting to fifty-two thousand persons annually, until, in the course of time, the parent stock left in the United States shall be extinguished gradually by death!!! No one but a thorough "philanthropist" could for a moment entertain a scheme so full of cruelty and horror, and so protracted in operation ; and none but blind fanatics could be persuaded that the execution was morally, even if physically possible.

But monstrous and shocking to every feeling of humanity as are the means here recommended, as operating upon the blacks, the worst results to the masters, and to the white race, have not been named. It is clear that, in this magnificent scheme of expenditure (which, however, would not serve for one tenth the cost of its avowed objects), nothing is allowed, or understood, for paying the owners for their slaves. Therefore, if it were possible to be executed, in addition to the general loss and great damage to all the southern States, as communities, in losing nearly all their present agricultural labor, and paying the larger amount of the expense of transportation to, and subsequent support of the colonists in Africa, the slave owners would be deprived of forty six thousand slaves a year, or all the increase, and at the age of their greatest value, without receiving the smallest payment as compensation !

But no man of sound judgment can suppose that the great intellect of Henry Clay could be duped by such estimates as he condescended to use for the purpose of operating upon other minds ; or that he could have believed, for a moment, that it would be possible to remove the whole black race from the United States to Africa, with any means for subsistence for the emigrants in their new homes. This utterly impossible accompaniment of colonization—removal to Africa—was stated merely to suit those who required it, and who could believe in it. All that was possible of Mr. Clay's scheme, and with the accomplishment of which part he and other clear-sighted emancipationists would have been content, would have been the general emancipation of slaves, without any (or but a nominal and fallacious) compensation to their owners—and without the cruelty and horror of the attempt, and the impossibility of the execu-

tion, of compulsory deportation to Africa of the whole increase of the race in the United States.

My only other citations of proofs will be all from a single source, which, as a whole, may be taken as the exposition of the views and objects of all the colonizationists of the Northern States, as well as of a few (also alike opposed to slavery) in the Southern States. This source is a review which first appeared in the "Quarterly Christian Spectator" (at New-Haven), of March, 1833, and was soon afterward reprinted in separate pamphlet form, under the title of a "Review of Pamphlets on Slavery and Colonization." From the place and manner of publication, and the rapid republications, it may be inferred that this exposition was industriously and generally distributed throughout the Northern States—and very cautiously and quietly placed in the hands of but a few persons holding or inclining to like opinions in the Southern States. The only copy that I have seen or heard of, was sent to a Southern slaveholder, distinguished for philanthropy, generosity, and self-sacrificing devotion to whatever he deems his duty as a man and a Christian, and especially valuing the Colonization Society as a means for the ultimate extinction of the supposed evil of negro slavery. That copy is directed to the name of the gentleman referred to, "with Elliott Cresson's best respects." Mr. Cresson was a vice-president, and a principal and efficient agent and patron of the American Colonization Society. The argument is in answer, and immediately addressed to Garrison, and the most violent of the abolition party, who had justly charged the Colonization Society with double-dealing—but, most unjustly, with being *opposed* to the abolition of slavery. It is to deny these charges, and to assert the opposite views and tendency of the Colonization Society, that this pamphlet was written. The general tenor is to this purpose. A few quotations will be enough to show the character of the work, and what must have been the author's opinion, and that of all who coincided with him, as to the certain working and final results of the Colonization Society.

"The actual tendencies of the enterprise of planting colored colonies in Africa from America, are, so far as the *abolition of slavery* is concerned, the following :

"It *secures* in many instances the *emancipation of slaves* by individuals, and thus brings the *power of example* to bear on *public sentiment*. This is not conjecture ; it is proved by the induction of particulars. The friends of the Colonization Society, in their arguments on this subject, can read off a catalogue of instances in which *emancipation has already resulted from the progress of this work*. We know that, on the other hand, it is said that the argument and statements of colonizationists prevent emancipation. But the proper proof of this assertion would be to bring forward the particular facts. Tell us of the individuals who have been effectually hindered from setting their slaves at large, by what they have read in the African Repository, or by what they have heard from the agents of the Society. We say, then, that, unless the testimony of facts can deceive us, *colonization is bringing the power of example to bear on public sentiment at the South, in regard to slavery*. Each single instance of emancipation is indeed a small matter when compared to the continued slavery of two millions ; but every such instance, occurring in the midst of a slave-holding community, is a *strong appeal to the natural sentiments of benevolence and justice* in all who witness it."

"Not Hayti has done more to make the negro character respected by mankind, and to afford the means of making the negro conscious of his manhood, than Liberia has already accomplished." (p. 20.)

"African colonization, so far as it is successful, will bring free labor into the direct and most extended competition with slave labor, and will thus *make the universal abolition of slavery inevitable.*" (p. 20.)

"The friends of slavery may dream that this work [colonization in Liberia] is to perpetuate their miserable system; but, if any of them do thus imagine, they err as greatly in that, as they do in supposing that the repeal of the protective tariff will relieve them from their embarrassments." (p. 21.)

"The great body of the friends of the Colonization Society at the South, no less than at the North, regard the scheme of that institution as something that will ultimately, in some way, *deliver the country from the curse of slavery.*"

"Had the scheme of the American Colonization Society never been undertaken, who believes that projects for the abolition of slavery would have been so soon, if ever, discussed in the Legislature of Virginia?"

"The hour in which the debate on slavery commenced in the Capitol at Richmond, may be considered as having sealed the death warrant of the system, not only for Virginia, but for the nation. Certainly, the greater the success which shall attend the colonization of Africa, the greater will be the progress of public opinion toward this consummation" *of the abolition of slavery in America.* But, as the author says more at length, even were the Society now to come to an end, and its colony also, "still it will be true that the *indirect influence of the American Colonization Society has secured the ultimate abolition of slavery.*" (p. 22.)

If any person, after having read even no more of such opinions than appear in passages quoted in this section, shall not be convinced that the continued object of the chief movers, advocates, and agents of the American Colonization Society, and the tendency of their efforts, are the general emancipation of slaves, and abolition of slavery, such persons must be so completely encased in prejudice, as to be invulnerable to the power of evidence or reasoning.

So much for the avowed policy and objects, and the more real and important and covert objects of the Society—or rather of the few functionaries who have really controlled the policy, and directed the appropriation of the funds contributed by the confiding liberality of thousands, who were content to give to what they supposed a good object, without examination of, or interfering with, the conduct of the few more zealous persons who were willing to bear the burden of the administrative duties and services. The Colonization Society was at first so generally favored by public opinion and sentiment—there was so little suspicion entertained by any of those who were outside of the small circle which enclosed its acting functionaries and its leading spirits—that there was no scrutiny of either its public or more secret policy, and almost no opposition to its procedure, for a long time. Some few able writers attempted opposition—among them, Gov. Giles and Prof. Dew of Virginia. But they addressed themselves to deaf ears and either careless or prejudiced minds—and without producing any important effect. When the men of the South generally lost their faith in the working of the Society (for he first professed objects), they simply withdrew silently from its support, but made no opposition to it. The double-dealing policy prospered and succeeded for a long time, in deceiving both the pro-slavery or slaveholding interest, and the anti-slavery or abolition party. The latter, in the Northern States, though truly and greatly favored by the ulterior designs and the actual working of the Colonization Society, were the first offended, and by the mere words used deceive and quiet the slaveholders. The latter, even when no longer

zealous for, or even favorable to, the first avowed objects of the Society, have generally remained quiet, and also deluded still, to some extent, for a much longer time. And even now, though much the greater number of all the former Southern friends have withdrawn their earlier and active support of the Colonization Society and its colony, there are but few Southern men who have yet taken the pains to investigate the real main tendency of the Society, and to understand and oppose the danger which it threatens to the interest of slaveholders and of the Southern States, and to the contentment and happiness of the slaves, and to the very existence of negro slavery in the States where that institution remains.

ART. VI.—THE MOUTHS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

OBSTRUCTIONS TO THE COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

THE New-Orleans Chamber of Commerce have been again devoting a great deal of time and labor to the subject of deepening the mouths of the Mississippi, now so much obstructed, to the enormous detriment of its commerce.

It seems that at the date of the report of a committee appointed by the Chamber, the following amount of merchandise was delayed at the bar, seeking ingress or egress :

Cotton, bales.....	71,985 at \$60 00.....	\$4,319,100
Tobacco, hhds.....	3,337 at 150 00.....	500,550
Sugar, do.	2,277 at 75 00.....	170,775
Molasses, bbls.....	1,575 at 12 00.....	18,900
Pork and Beef, bbls.....	11,309 at 18 00.....	203,562
Flour, bbls.....	11,417 at 5 50.....	62,793
Lard and Hams, tierces.....	2,929 at 30 00.....	87,870
Wheat, sacks.....	3,789 at 1 00.....	3,789
Total		\$5,367,339
Inward bound.....		2,000,000
Total		\$7,367,339

Referring to the heavy losses entailed by this state of things, not only upon the commerce of New-Orleans, but that of the whole country, the committee, consisting of Wm. Creevy, T. L. Wibray, J. B. Morison, G. A. Fosdick, and P. H. Skipwith, say :

“NEW-ORLEANS, Feb. 4, 1859.

“It will thus be seen that there is held in check, in consequence of the impediments to navigation above referred to, property worth nearly five and a half millions of dollars, the interest on which, for a single day, at six per cent. per annum, amounts to about \$1,000. In this estimate, no account is taken of the value of the ships, nor any but the leading articles of produce; nor of the cargoes of the ships which have cleared and are ready for sea, and whose commanders deem it more prudent to remain at the wharf until there is a prospect of getting over the Bar without difficulty, than to lie at anchor inside or aground on the Bar in the crowd of ships, and liable to damage. This is a startling array of figures; in itself sufficient, in the opinion of your committee, to

attract public attention, and cause the most indifferent to reflect on the evils likely to arise from such a derangement of the commerce of the city; and which will end in the total ruin of our trade, and even our very existence as the emporium of the Southwest, unless prompt and energetic means are adopted for the removal of these obstructions.

"Much has been said and written on the subject of the railroads which now run up the Mississippi river, and have their termini on the Atlantic shore; and of the injury which they were likely to work to the trade of New-Orleans, by diverting the produce of the great valley of the Mississippi from its natural outlet there; but these your committee have read and listened to without the least feeling of alarm, having an abiding confidence that the Mississippi river would continue to be the great highway for the produce of the valley which bears its name, and New-Orleans, the great depot and point of exportation so long as there was free communication with the Gulf of Mexico for vessels of the class required by the yearly increasing necessities of trade; but they must confess that the spectacle which presented itself to them at the Bar gave rise to grave apprehensions whether or not it would be possible to retain the trade of New-Orleans and maintain its position as the greatest exporting city of the Union, unless some measure of relief is speedily granted; nor are the movements going on around us calculated to allay these fears. Already rival cities, taking the advantage of our misfortunes, are putting forth their claims to a share of the trade which has heretofore been ours, and which, we are constrained to admit, it needs no prophetic eye to discern, must soon seek other channels unless these obstructions are removed; for your committee do not doubt that very facility will be given by our rivals to those frequenting this port and mart, which their own resources and all the outside aid they can bring in will command.

"In the list of property detained at the Bar, is comprised one item of nearly twenty-two thousand bales of cotton. Some of these outward-bound ships have been detained for several weeks, and it is hardly to be supposed that parties in want of cotton will again send their orders to New-Orleans if there is the least likelihood of a similar delay in getting it to market, and if this community is not alive to its interest, the now famous cotton mart of New-Orleans will speedily become a thing of the past. Again, the bills of exchange drawn against the cargoes so detained, will, in all probability, mature before the produce arrives, when, by all ordinary calculations, it would have been at hand in time to meet them; and this is another ramification of the evil which may overtake us in the shape of a derangement of our monetary affairs, consequent upon the difficulties which parties may experience in raising funds to retire the same.

"Of the value of the cargoes of the inward-bound ships your committee have no data, but they think it may be safely put down at two millions of dollars. Many of these ships are laden with goods destined for the West and Western trade, and it requires but a slight effort of the imagination to picture the loss and inconvenience which the owners have suffered by having their goods detained until the proper season for their sale has past. These, again, are not likely to order their supplies to be shipped via New-Orleans, until they have the assurance that these impediments to the navigation have been permanently removed. In looking at the question from this point of view, we can see that the interest of the consumer, although apparently remote, is actually near and positive. So large an amount of goods being kept out of market must necessarily enhance the value of those on the spot, and he therefore has to contribute his quota of the loss by the advanced prices which he has to pay for the articles of import which he requires."

Annexed to the committee's report is one from Captain Dunham, a distinguished engineer, who demonstrates the practicability of keeping, at a moderate expense, a draft of 20 feet of water permanently on the bar, a depth quite sufficient for all the requisitions of commerce. We learn from it, that the first correct soundings of the mouths were made in 1838, by Cap-

tain Talcott, U. S. Engineer, and the next in 1851-52, by the Coast Survey, and that, from a comparison of data, it appears there is an outward tendency of the land and the bars amounting to one mile in every fifteen years !

"Now if we consider the deep waters of the Gulf to average only 86 feet in depth, and take the tidal bar at a mean of 14 feet, this extension gives us the enormous deposit of 12,000 cubic yards within the bar limits of the Southwest Pass, and about 8,000,000 cubic yards on the bar of Pass-à-l'Outre, in a single year, and this without estimating the amount thrown upon the other passes, or that which is carried beyond the bars into the sea.

"From all of which it follows that the origin of the tidal bar formation is the impact of this sluggish under current with the comparatively still waters of the Gulf, which, retarding the under currents still more, produces a tendency to equilibrium, in which the sediment in suspension is silently and rapidly deposited. In fact, it has been clearly demonstrated in many instances that any check to the current of the sedimentary stream will produce a deposit of the sediment proportional to the degree of retardation, and that where sedimentary waters become entirely quiescent, they soon completely purify themselves and become limpid."

The following description of the tumuli or mud lumps which constitute the most remarkable phenomena of the river, will be found very interesting :

"These singular tumuli are constantly rising and subsiding on the long sweep of flats, tidal bars, and low lands, around the several mouths.

"Their generation is most frequent at the annual spring floods or high water, at which time, also, the bars are in their worst condition.

"When the river is low and comparatively free from sediment, many of the mud lumps subside, and the bars themselves naturally improve, because the active origin of their formation has in a great measure ceased from the greater stability of the upper river banks.

"It would appear from this, that the origin of the mud lumps is in some way intimately connected with the rise in the river, but various theories of their formation have been advanced by eminent geologists and scientific men.

"Lyell regards them as due to the existence of accumulated vegetable matter in the bars, which, decomposing in the course of time, generates large quantities of gaseous matter. In escaping from their confinement beneath the muddy deposit, these gases exert an effort to throw up the mud, and the action being continuous and accumulative, the detritus of the bar is finally raised above the surface of the water, where it is exposed to the action of the wind, sun, rain, and waves.

"The tendency of the mud to crack, disintegrate and slide on exposure to the above causes, produces the fissures in their tops and the semblance of volcanic action peculiar to them.

"Forshey, on the other hand, considers their formation to be due to a subterranean connection between them and distant salt springs in the interior of the country, his theory being in part based upon the character and temperature of the water thrown out from their craters, which is extremely salt, and colder than that of the surrounding sea.

"Other theories assign their origin to the action of the river current or of the gulf waves striking against an out-cropping current stratum in the submerged bar, which, yielding to the continued action, is forced up above the surface.

"The height of the waves above the ordinary level gives, of the two, the sea wave theory the preference over that of the current action, as it accounts for the raising of the mud lumps above the surface, on the common spring theory that water seeks its own level, and will rise out of a fissure to a height equalling that of its fountain head.

"Whatever may be the real primary cause of their formation, it is sufficient &

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poses to know, that they invariably precede and very materially assist formation of the bar and the outward progress of the land, by forming lodgments, against which the deposition of the materials held in suspension are rapidly accumulated."

The progress of the various attempts to deepen the channel of the river is thus detailed by Capt. Duncan :

The first attempt at improvement on the passes of the Mississippi, was made by the General Government, under the direction of Capt. Talcott, in 1839. The means he employed were the ordinary bucket dredge, which it appears very soon failed, even under the auspices of an intelligent, practical agent of improvement. Capt. Talcott entertained the opinion, however, that dredging very might be made effective on the bars, if tried on the same principle under more favorable circumstances.

His further efforts were abandoned until 1852, when the General Government entered into a contract with the Towboat Association to open the passes, the contract was completed, and the work effectively done in twelve months. The means employed by the Association were the ordinary dredge harrow and bar, which, within the time called for by the contract, succeeded beyond expectations of every one in opening a channel 18 feet deep by over 300 feet width, over a bar averaging 14 feet in depth. The distance between primary and secondary bases of the bar at the time, or from the 18 feet outside to the 18 feet depth inside, was one and a half miles, just about what it is at present.

The same means have been employed with the like success on the bars of the sedimentary streams in England.

Further steps being taken to keep open the Southwest Pass after the completion of the contract of the Towboat Association, and the causes of the formation of the bar continuing to act, it of course became in a short time as impracticable to navigation as ever.

In consequence, in 1856, a contract was entered into between the United States Messrs. Craig & Righter, to open a straight channel of 300 feet wide at the mouth, and 20 feet deep, through the bar of the Southwest Pass, and a similar channel through the bar of the Pass-à-l'Outre, which work was to have been completed in ten months.

From the date of their completion, they furthermore contracted to keep both the passes open for a period of four and a half years.

The contract was subsequently modified to read 18 instead of 20 feet in depth, and additional time was allowed the contractors for opening the passes.

The means stipulated for, were to close up the minor passes, and to throw out 'dams' as jetties into the main channels, and by concentrating the water in a particular manner, to make the current do the bottom cutting and scouring.

These 'Meig dams' are patented, and consist of a single row of heavy piling driven at distances of about 5 feet apart, with the intervals filled up with 4-inch string-piling driven in juxtaposition, and secured above the surface by string-piling to which the heads of the sheet piling are spiked.

The same principle of deepening channels, by concentrating the water, has been successfully applied in many instances ; as in the Clyde Improvements (Scotland) where parallel dikes, made of piling and cribwork, filled in with stone, have been admirably to effect its object. It was done on a large scale, however, at an enormous cost."

The attempts of Craig & Righter having proved a signal failure, and their proposed method, and other efforts, equally unsuccessful, were made by blasting with gunpowder. In the utter failure of these efforts Capt. Duncan is forced to fall back upon the ordinary dredge and harrow, which, he does not doubt, will answer the required purpose. The estimate of expense follows :

"The bar should be removed from the Southwest Pass first, and afterward Pass-à-l'Outre could be opened.

A low-pressure boat of the required size will cost, when new, everything complete..... \$50,000 00
Harrow and scraper, with tackle complete..... 1,500 00

Cost of equipment..... \$51,500 00

The cost per month of working this machinery, day and night, will be as follows :

1 captain.....	\$166 60
1 pilot	90 00
1 mate.....	45 00
1 carpenter.....	45 00
1 chief engineer.....	125 00
3 ass't ".....	225 00
2 strikers.....	60 00
2 steersmen.....	60 00
12 firemen.....	360 00
12 deck hands.....	360 00
1 steward.....	40 00
1 cook.....	40 00
1 assistant to steward.....	5 00

2,000 barrels of coal, at 70c.....	\$1,621 66
Stores, &c., of all kinds.....	8,400 00
	600 00

Total monthly expenses, when working day and night.. \$10,621 66

"If we suppose the Southwest Pass to be opened in four months by the application of this machinery, we shall have as follows :

Cost of equipment.....	\$51,500 00
Cost of force and stores for 4 months.....	42,486 64

\$98,986 64

To which add 10 per cent. for wear and tear, &c.....	9,398 66
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Total cost..... \$108,385 30

If we suppose that Pass-à-l'Outre can be opened in 4 months, we have, cost of force

and stores for 4 months.....	\$42,486 64
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Add the 10 per cent. as above.....	9,398 66
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Total cost opening Pass-à-l'Outre..... \$ 51,885 30

Or for opening both passes, the cost will be..... 155,270 60

Or about 15½ cents per cubic yard for opening.

"After the passes are once opened effectively, it is presumable that smaller cuts and lighter machinery will be sufficient to keep them open.

"At all events, it will only be necessary to act upon the bars occasionally, which can be done in the daytime, and the consequent reduction of force and cost will effect a great reduction of the monthly cost.

"It must be understood, however, that this harrowing and scraping must be a constant operation, in order to be perfectly successful, as must also be any other plan in its application to the passes of the Mississippi river."

Congress and the State Legislature are now appealed to, by very consideration of public duty, to act with promptness and decision in this matter. A committee has been appointed to repair to Washington City. The editor of this REVIEW

acted with a similar committee in 1852, and waited with them upon the Executive, and in 1856 he pressed upon the then Secretary of War the acceptance of the proposals of the Tow-boat Company of New-Orleans, which, if acceded to, would have, perhaps, obviated much of the present difficulty. The Secretary, however, acting under the advice of his engineers, came to a different determination.

ART. VII.—CHRONICLES OF THE TOMBS.

THE admirable English library of Bohn, contains no work more interesting and unique, than that of Mr. Pettigrew, entitled "Chronicles of the Tombs." We have lately spent many agreeable hours in its perusal, and are tempted to take a cursory survey of it for the benefit of our readers.

To the Greeks and Romans, we are indebted for the most extensive collection of epitaphs; but Mr. Pettigrew draws also upon the prolific stores of Britain, France, Germany, and Italy. Epitaphs are often of great value to the biographer and historian, and supply many important gaps in the records of the past. Some of the most precious of the earlier time, were destroyed by the bigotry of the Puritans, after the destruction of the monasteries. The mound and the pyramid were the earliest known monuments, and they were followed by pillars, columns, tombs, etc. Many inscriptions have been deciphered, also, from the mummies of Egypt.

The Greek epitaphs are very beautiful, in poetry and prose, and are commonly epigrammatic. The following is by Leonidas, of Tarentum, and is a mother's offering to her son :

" Unhappy child ! Unhappy I who shed
A mother's sorrows o'er thy funeral bed !
Thou'rt gone in youth, Amyn as ; I in age,
Must wander through a lonely pilgrimage,
And sigh for regions of unchanging night,
And sicken at the day's repeated light.
Oh, guide me hence, sweet spirit, to the bourne
Where in thy presence I shall cease to mourn."

The following, by Anacreon, on the tomb of Timocritus, is in the finest epigrammatic style :

" Timocritus adorns this humble grave ;
Mars spares the coward and destroys the brave."

What can be more touching and beautiful than the following, upon the tomb of a wife ?

"Tears, Heledora! on thy tomb I shed,
 Love's last libation to the shades below;
 Tears, bitter tears, by fond remembrance fed,
 Are all that Fate now leaves me to bestow.
 Vain sorrows! vain regrets! Yet loveliest! thee,
 Thee, still they follow in the silent urn,
 Retracing hours of social converse free,
 And soft endearments, never to return."

The Roman monuments were ordinarily erected on the highways, so as to be more noted, and the catacombs offer most interesting material. A frequent and beautiful expression, handed down to our time, is found upon many of their tombs—"Sit tibi terra levis"—"Light lie the earth upon thy grave."

The mausoleum, a kind of very splendid tomb, is said to derive its name from the course pursued by Artemisia, wife of Mausolus, who, in her affliction at the death of her husband, drank his ashes in her liquor, and erected to his memory a superb monument.

It is quite evident that one must not take too literally or faithfully the inscriptions which chronicle the deeds of the departed, for, as Dr. Johnson has said, "On lapidary inscriptions a man is not upon his oath," and as Crabbe remarks, "They are often but the offerings which flattery sells to pride." The following, which appears at Oxford upon the tomb of one of the Fellows, is certainly not open to that charge;

"*Praevit!*"

At the Vaticano, in Rome, appears the following, to the memory of Caius Julius Maximus, a child two years old:

"Oh, relentless Fortune, who delightest in cruel death,
 Why is Maximus so early snatched from me?
 He who lately used to lie beloved on my bosom,
 This stone now marks his tomb—behold his mother!"

There are few inscriptions of the Saxon period. Recent excavations in England have brought to light some in Runic and Saxon letters, belonging to the sixth century. They contain little more than names and dates, and English epitaphs seem not to run further back than the eleventh century, in England, being mostly in the Latin tongue. French epitaphs were common there till the middle of the fourteenth century. The following is devoted to the Black Prince, and is dated 1376:

"Whoso thou be that passeth bye,
 Where these corpes interred lie:
 Understand what I shall saye,
 As at this time speake I maye.
 Such as thou art sometyme was I;
 Such as I am such shalt thou bee."

I little thought on the houre of death,
 Soe long as I enjoyed breath;
 Greate riches here I did possesse,
 Whereof I made great noblesse;
 I had gold, silver, wardrobe, and
 Greate treasures, horses, houses, lands,
 But now a caitiffe poore am I,
 Deepe in the ground lo here I lie.

My beautye greate, is all quite gone,
 My fleshe is wasted to the bone,
 My house is narrow nowe, and thronge,
 Nothing but truthe comes from my tongue;
 And if ye shoulde see mee this daye,
 I do not thinke but ye wolde saye
 That I had never beene a man,
 So much altered nowe I am!
 For God's sake, praye to the heavenly Kinge,
 That he my soul to heaven wolde bringe;
 All theye that praye and make accorde
 For mee unto my God and Lorde;
 God place them in his paradise.
 Wherein noe wretched caitiffe lies."

The Latin tongue is thought to be the most apt, in elegance and force, for inscription, and the English the least apt, and on this account the statues to Pitt, Peel, Canning, Bentinck, etc., have nothing more than the name and dates. The learned Dr. Parr declined writing an epitaph on Dr. Johnson in the English language, though admitting it would be the most appropriate, if adequate, since the fame of the great Doctor was altogether English. Johnson, himself, was indignant on the idea being suggested to him of composing Goldsmith's epitaph in English, and remarked that he "would never consent to disgrace the walls of Westminster Abbey with an English inscription." It was in his epitaph on Goldsmith that the so often quoted line occurs:

"Nullum quod tetigit non ornavit."

We agree with Mr. Pettigrew, that success in epitaphs consists in expressing the thoughts in the shortest, clearest, and easiest way, by the most harmonious arrangement of the best chosen words both for meaning and sound. "By this course the epitaph will be strong and expressive, without stiffness or affectation, and it will be short and concise, without being either obscure or ambiguous." The following by Pope, on Sir Isaac Newton, was justly rejected, as out of taste:

"Nature, and nature's laws, lay hid in Night,
 God said, Let Newton be, and all was Light."

The following is very tender:

"The bitter cup that death gave me
 Is passing round, to come to thee."

This idea is found in most languages. In English it is expressed variously, "As thou art now, so once was I," etc., etc. In the following it is very happily rendered :

"Time was, I stood where thou dost now,
And viewed the dead as thou dost me,
Ere long, thou'lt lie as low as I,
And others stand and look on thee."

The vanity of earthly possessions is well expressed in many quaint epitaphs :

"What I gave, I have,
What I spent, I had,
What I left, I lost by not giving it."

The following on Admiral Blake, is of the bombastic order, and is in St. Margaret's Churchyard :

"Here lies a man made Spain and Holland shake ;
Made France to tremble, and the Turks to quake.
Thus he tamed men ; but if a lady stood
In 's sight, it raised a paley in his blood ;
At sea he thundered, calmed each rising wave,
And now he's dead, sent thundering to his grave."

One Robert Shirtoun, in the year 1652, pays tribute to his two departed wives :

"First blessed me with many children fair,
The second nurst them with maternal care."

Many of the laudatory epitaphs which are found, are in the style of our ordinary obituary notices, fulsome and ridiculous.

The introduction of punning into epitaphs would seem to be the least tolerable liberty with such grave and solemn matters. Yet we find one on John Calf, in the reign of Henry III. :

"O cruell Death, as subtle as a Fox,
Who would not let this Calf live till he'd been an oxe,
That he might have eaten both branches and thorns,
And when he came to his father's years, might have worn horns."

On Mrs. Rose Sparke, 1615 :

"Sixty-right years a fragrant *Rose* she lasted,
No vile reproach her virtues ever blasted,
Her autumn past, expects a glorious springe," &c.

On John Warner :

"I Warner once was to myself,
Now Warning am to thee,
Both living, dying, dead I was,
See then thou warned be."

Chest :

"Here lies at rest, I do protest,
One *Chest* within another ;
The chest of wood was very good,
Who says so of the other ?"

Mr. Stone :

"Jerusalem's curse is not fulfilled in me,
For here a stone upon a stone you see."

Mr. Merideth :

"Here lies one blown out of breath,
Who lived a merry life and died a Meri-death."

roscopic epitaphs are very numerous ; as are those of an
nautical character.
Those which fix the date in the inscription are very curious.
One Elizabeth, MDCIII., has the following :

"My Day Closed Is In Immortality."

Here is one of the dialogue species on Thomas Gibbons, ob.
79 :

"Liv'st thou, Thomas ! Yes, with God on high.
Art thou not dead ? Yes, and here I lye.
I that with man on earth did live to die,
Died for to live with Christ eternally."

Another at St. Pancras, on Godfrey Hill, reads :

"Thus far I am got on my journey ;
Reader !
Can'st thou inform me
What follows next ?"

In Essex we find Richard Pritchard and his wife thus hand-
ed over to immortality :

"Here lies the man Richard
And Mary his wife,
Their surname was Pritchard.
They lived without strife ;
And the reason was plain,
They abounded in riches,
They had no care or pain,
And the wife wore the breeches."

The Rev. John Pettigrew, late minister, near Glasgow, has
upon his tomb the following amusing inscription :

"Here lies a reverend *Giran* priest,
Who sore against his will deceast,
His soul to *Abraham's* bosom fled,
As by his reverend elders said :
Others who knew his youthful joys,
Say *Sarah's* rather was his choice ;
For he as't will his scabbard's humbled,
His heels and down he tumbled."

The following, on Blackett, the poet and cobbler, is admirable :

"But spare him, ye critics, his follies are past,
For the cobbler is come, as he ought, to his last."

This, on John Bell, is quaint and admonitory :

"I, Jocky Bell, o' Braikenbrow, lies under this stane,
Was man of my meat and master of my wife.
If thou done better in thy time than I did in mine,
Take this stane off my wame and lay it on thine."

At this point we must rest, having travelled, it is admitted, rather out of our accustomed route, though unfortunately we have only passed through a portion of the interesting work. A large number of epitaphs, noted for their peculiarity, which were marked by us to be copied, must be omitted for want of space. Let the reader refer to the volume itself, and he will find epitaphs on kings and nobles, on poets, lawyers, and doctors ; pathetic, admonitory, bombastio, ludicrous, eccentric ; and, besides, he will find some curious speculations in regard to monumental sculpture, inscriptions, funeral emblems, etc. We have never lighted upon a rarer book.

ART. VIII.—HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

BATON ROUGE—ITS PAST, ITS PRESENT, AND ITS FUTURE.

Several years since we published a series of papers, which embraced very complete historical and statistical records of many of the towns and parishes of Louisiana, prepared by gentlemen in the several neighborhoods, well acquainted with the facts and traditions of which they spoke. We should be pleased to continue this series, and invite further contributions, intending after awhile to gather up the information into one compact volume. We are in this way carrying out the views of the Legislature, providing at one time for a Bureau of Statistics, which we presided over, but which, from defects in its organization, did not produce the anticipated advantages.

The parishes on which we mainly desire information now are Franklin, Lafayette, Livingston, Rapides, Sabine, St. Tammany, Tensas, Terre Bonne, Union, Vermilion and Washington—who will impart it ?

The following on Baton Rouge is from the pen of Prof. Stueckrath :

It is our desire to present a sketch of past events, intimately connected with the early history and foundation of Baton Rouge, "the Revolution which delivered it from the yoke of Spain." Most persons have received from "*tradition*" a very erroneous impression of the events which have taken place in the early history of the Capital ; and our statements can be trusted as correct, for we have them from *reliable authority*. The facts of the capture of Baton Rouge by General Philemon Thomas, can be testified to by an eye-w

HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

nice de Leon landed, in 1513, on the coast of Florida. After Hernando de Soto explored the vast regions which Leon had

He died on the banks of the Mississippi, having accomplished
 ng for his country. He is, however, the first white man
 e eye scanned the course of the Father of Waters.

Salle, a gallant Frenchman, started, in 1678, with a small party
 ench and Canadians from the French possessions in Canada, in
 1 of the Mississippi, and he has the glory of having taken pos-
 n of the country he explored in the name of the King of France,
 iving it the name of Louisiana; a territory extending from the
 ers of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico; bounded on the east by
 ritish possessions of the Atlantic coast, and its western limits
 1 the solitudes of the far West. The territory was named and
 possession of, *but that was all!*

was only in the year 1699 that the French succeeded in estab-
 g a colony in Louisiana, and Iberville formed a settlement on the
 of the Gulf of Mexico, establishing the head of the colony at
 i Bay, and exploring the country.

1722, Bienville, a brother of Iberville, laid the foundations of
 Orleans. A prophetic genius seemed to have directed him, and
 led to him the great destinies which awaited the city of which
 d the corner-stone.

e French colony of Louisiana was, however, *onerous* to the
 er-country.

1766, the king of France made to Spain and England a cession
 : whole province of Louisiana. To Spain he gave all the lands
 west of the Mississippi, with New-Orleans and the island on
 1 it is built, that is, that tract of land bounded north by the
 hac Bayou, west by the river Mississippi, east by the lakes
 epas, Pontchartrain and Borgne, and south by the Gulf of Mex-
 aus encircling New-Orleans. England received the whole of
 erritory east of the Mississippi, with the exception of New-
 ns. The inhabitants of New-Orleans thought that the mother-
 ry was perpetrating, not only an act of injustice, but an outrage
 them, in thus *selling* them, without their consent, to another
 , as if they were no better than slaves. They raised the stand-
 f rebellion against the Spanish authorities, and petitioned the
 sh government to take them back like children and brethren,
 rain.

hen interest is at stake, there are neither friends nor kindred.

"Falsehood buyeth falsehood only,
 But truth must purchase truth!"

1779, Spain having, in conjunction with France, declared war
 st England, to aid the Americans in their struggle for independ-
 Don Bernardo de Galvez, the Spanish governor of Louisiana,
 ed against the fort of Baton Rouge, which was a stronghold of
 Britain in the solitudes of Louisiana, and was defended by a
 on of 400 men. The fort of Baton Rouge was built during the
 co of the French colony under Iberville.

Galvez having arrived in sight of the fort, besieged it, setting his camp a little to the southward of the spot now filled by square No. 2, between North Boulevard and Convention-street. On the 23d of September, 1779, his first gun was fired, and a moment after, the hill was enveloped in smoke. Col. Dixon, in behalf of England, asked for a capitulation, which was granted.

The battle of Baton Rouge drove forever the British out of the province.

In 1795, Spain, by a treaty with the United States, recognized the sway of Congress over all the territory east of the Mississippi, which had been ceded by France to England, keeping, however, to herself the Floridas and the grant she had received from France.

But, in 1801, she gave up to Bonaparte the Territory of Louisiana, as she had received it from France.

The great emperor sold it to the United States, knowing that under the protection of that infant republic alone, it could prosper and develop its resources.

In 1808, a village was beginning to spring up around the fort of Baton Rouge. Some of the first houses had been built, and some of them still are standing. One, perhaps the finest built, is the house now situated on the corner of Repentance and Convention streets, opposite Mr. Waller's office. It was the mansion of Governor Don Carlos Grandpre.

The inhabitants of the District of Baton Rouge, comprised in the Territory of Florida, yet pined under the yoke of Spain, became jealous to see the citizens of the United States enjoying the privileges of liberty. That spirit of dissatisfaction was encouraged, as some think, by secret agents of the Federal Government. By them the flame was fed. One hundred in number, dissatisfied with this state of things, under command of General Philemon Thomas, assembled at St. Francisville, and resolved to march against the fort of Baton Rouge.

On the night of the 23d of September, 1810, thirty-one years after the fort had surrendered to Galvez, and on the same memorable day, General Thomas, at the head of his mounted riflemen, arrived at the fort in order to put his designs into execution. The coincidence here is strange, and worthy of notice—the 23d of September being the anniversary of the two captures of Baton Rouge.

Grandpre at once rallied around him his little band, and resolved to conquer or die at his post. He was summoned to surrender, but, like Leonidas, he answered, "Come and take us." Not one of his guns were loaded. He knew it, and therefore could only return the fire of his musketry.

Grandpre gave the order to fire, and a discharge from the American rifles responded to the fire of the fort, and our young hero fell, covered with wounds, as though almost every shot had been aimed at his breast. With his fall, the fire of the fort ceased, and Baton Rouge was taken. He was buried in the Catholic church of this city, and not a stone marks the spot where, in neglect, slumber the ashes of the hero.

On the 7th day of December, 1810, C. C. Claiborne, governor of

the Territory of Orleans, marched, under a detachment of militia, obtained of Governor Holmes of Mississippi, to St. Francisville, where he unfurled the American flag, thus taking possession of the Territory in behalf of the United States.

The District of Baton Rouge being annexed to the Territory of Orleans, was divided by Claiborne into six parishes—namely, Feliciana, East Baton Rouge, St. Helena, St. Tammany, Biloxi and Ascagoula. They have since been subdivided, and now form seven parishes—viz., East and West Feliciana, East Baton Rouge, St. Helena, St. Tammany, Livingston, and Washington, which even now are known by the name of Florida parishes.

Baton Rouge was a military post until the beginning of this century, when the foundations of a city were laid by Antonis Grass, Esq., Eli Beauregard, Esq., Richard Devall, Esq. and Gilbert Leonard, Esq. Different parts of the capital bear the names of its founders.

In its different changes of dominion, Baton Rouge has always retained a military post; now it is both a city and an arsenal.

When, in 1779, the fort was taken by Don Bernardo De Galvez, the house which is now seen, where the fort once stood, was then in existence, and was inhabited by Col. Dixon, the English commander. Under the shelter of its roof dwelt Don Bernardo De Galvez, and it is since been the residence of General Taylor, when the old veteran resided in Baton Rouge, previous to his filling the Presidential chair. Baton Rouge means, literally translated from the French, "*Red Rock*," and derives its name from the fact, that two Indian tribes, whose lands terminated on its soil, marked their common boundary with a pole painted with vermilion.

In the year 1820, Baton Rouge was incorporated, and received its charter; since when, it has risen to the proportions of a city, and has become the capital of the State of Louisiana.

The position of Baton Rouge secures its claims to future greatness. Built on a hill which rises *far above* the level of the Mississippi, it is the only point of the coast of that river which, within the limits of the State of Louisiana, stands above high water-mark, except the bluffs of Port Hudson and St. Francisville. The town sits on the eastern extremity of a highland ridge, which, branching off from the Alleghanies, advances like a promontory across the lowlands of Louisiana. Where that chain is broken off by the Mississippi, it rises and forms the keystone of the hilly regions of Louisiana.

The State-House at Baton Rouge was erected in 1847. The following names are engraved on marble slabs, on the front of the edifice, which is built of brick:

ISAAC JOHNSON,
Governor.
TRASIMON LANDRY,
Lt. Governor.
PRESTON W. FARRAR,
Speaker House Representatives.
NEWTON RICHARDS,

MAUNSEL WHITE,
WALTER BRASHEAR,
DANIEL D. AVERY,
Commissioners.
J. H. DAKIN, *Architect.*
ERECTED, 1847.

Marmorarius fecit.

Grand, gloomy, and peculiar, the capital stands in solitary majesty on the banks of the river. It looks like one of those ancient castles, whose ruins now line the banks of the Rhine.

The statue of George Washington, the Father of the Republic, is the work of Hiram Powers, Esq., out of the purest of Italian white marble, has lately been erected in the rotunda of the building, procured, as a tribute to his memory, in token of veneration, by the State of Louisiana.

The American Government commenced building the arsenal soon after the conclusion of the war of 1812 with Great Britain, and the barracks have become somewhat dilapidated, but are now undergoing some repairs.

The ordnance department has always been kept in the most elegant order, and it is now the most beautiful situation in the town.

There is also a penitentiary here, and 300 convicts.

The Deaf and Dumb Asylum is situated in the lower part of the city, in which you have a view from the river. It is the largest and most elegant building in the city.

The mercantile business is very good, and increasing. A large number of stores are being continually added.

The land in the neighborhood is rich, and generally cultivated in sugar cane.

At present the number of inhabitants is about six thousand.

There are several female and male schools, all in a flourishing condition, with intelligent, faithful, and pleasant instructors.

There are now four Protestant churches and one Roman Catholic.

The Presbyterian church was built in 1828; the Methodist about 1835, and the Episcopal and Christian churches were erected about 1853.

The Harney House, under the superintendence of Wm. J. Rhodes, Esq., gives general satisfaction to all sojourners, as regards comfortable accommodations and good fare.

Two daily papers are published in this metropolis; the *Advocate*, and the *Gazette and Comet*. The first is a State paper, published by Messrs. Taylor & Bynum, who have shown all courtesy in advancing the interests of the REVIEW.

The Legislature is at present in session. This being the one designated by the Constitution to make a new apportionment of the State, the assembled wisdom is just now earnestly engaged in discussing the merits of several propositions for that purpose. The Constitution explicitly states that no law shall be enacted until the apportionment is made, and, as a consequence, they have now been in session some five weeks without having adorned the statute-books with any new evidences of their wisdom.

In conclusion it gives us, however, great pleasure in stating to our friends, that the benefactors of the rising generation have assembled here, and are endeavoring to place the educational interests of the state upon the surest foundation.

The Act of the 31st March, 1853, for the organization of the "*Seminary of Learning of the State of Louisiana*," was an admirable

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complete one; unfortunately, the committee of the General Assembly, for revising the statutes of the State, emasculated that act, 155, of its most valuable provisions, leaving to the Board of Trustees only the functions of a building committee.

At the session of 1858, the General Assembly enacted a new law, creating a new Board, called "*The Board of Supervisors of the Seminary of Learning of the State of Louisiana*," to consist of fourteen members, of which the Governor of the State is ex-officio president, the Superintendent of Public Education a member; the other twelve being appointed by the Governor and Senate—which Board is required by the law to receive the building when completed and to be turned over by the Board of Trustees—to prepare a system of government and instruction—to appoint professors, etc.

This Board held its first meeting in December last, in Alexandria, three miles and a half from which town, in the pine hills on the east or north side of Red River, on a healthy site, the magnificent building is situated. Thence it adjourned to meet here on the

February, 1859, to prosecute its labors in the organization of the institution—to enable it to do which, a further appropriation is required by the Legislature, of \$20,000, to provide accommodations for instructors, furniture, apparatus and books for the institution, an increase of its permanent revenue, now arising from the lands granted by the General Government, which is \$8,000 to \$16,000 a year, for "*two years only*," to enable it to be started respectably, properly and usefully to the people of the State, whose property it is.

A committee has been appointed to endeavor to procure the passage of such an act through the Legislature.

Two plans are proposed for organizing the institution—one to make it a "*HIGH GRADE Literary Institution*," requiring a very considerable degree of advancement as a pre-requisite for admission into its classes; the other to make it a Literary and Scientific Institution, under the literary system of government, by which the young men would become a part of the governing power themselves, and in which those "*languages, Arts, and Sciences, of practical use in the daily walks and occupations of life, and its business as well as in its more elegant accomplishments*," shall be taught.

New Orleans, the present metropolis of the State of Louisiana, has had many checks to her growth and prosperity; but of late years she seems at last to have shaken the dust from her sandals, in order to keep pace with this age of progress, and to take her rank as a first position among the cities of the United States.

ART. IX.—SHOULD OUR USURY LAWS BE REPEALED ?

We have thought that these laws were opposed to the spirit of the age, and ought to be repealed everywhere ; but a correspondent in Kentucky ingeniously argues to the contrary.—[EDITOR.

It is well known that the wisdom and propriety of our usury laws have, of late, been much questioned in this country. Writers have denounced them as unnatural and inequitable ; though, as yet, I have seen no writer who has placed this subject before the country in its proper light. They have all placed it upon a false and deceptive basis. They all proceed upon the basis that there is no reason why interest, or the hire of money, should not fluctuate with demand and supply, as do all other commodities. At a superficial glance there seems to be great plausibility in their position. At first it seems there is really no reason why it should not. But there is a reason, and it will be the business of this article to show wherein it consists.

The fact that civilized nations have always regarded the hire upon money as an exception to a general rule is, of itself, a strong presumption in its favor. And whoever will take it upon himself to examine the subject thoroughly, will find the exception no less natural than the rule itself. No laws upon our statute-books are upon a more permanent and natural basis than are our usury laws. They are as natural, and as necessary as the lending of money. They proceed upon the correct grounds, that demand and supply of right have nothing to do in the regulating of interest, the risk being the same. The reason why demand and supply have nothing to do in the regulating of interest is simply because, when we borrow or hire money, we pay with interest or hire with money ; we pay it in kind ; and it is the only article, the hire of which is paid in kind. Hence the exception.

Any given commodity with relation to every other commodity is relative, and changes, but in relation to itself it is absolute and changes not. Thus, a dollar, when compared with any other commodity, as wheat or corn, is relative, and fluctuates. Sometimes it will pay for one bushel only, and at other times it will pay for two bushels ; and so with any given commodity that may be compared.

But a dollar compared with a dollar or with a dime is absolute, and cannot vary. The dollar is to the dollar as one is to one, and is to the dime as ten is to one, and those relations are absolute and immutable. A bushel of wheat compared with a bushel of corn or a sack of coffee is relative. Sometimes it is worth more and sometimes less, comparatively ; but a bushel of wheat compared with a bushel or with ten bushels of wheat is absolute, one bushel is to one bushel as one is to one, and to ten bushels as one is to ten, and that relation is unchanged, be the quantity of wheat much or little, and be the price high or low.

It has been said that the Legislature might as well fix the price for the hire of slaves as for the hire of money. But this position is not correct ; because the Legislature can never know what a slave is

rth for a year. Some are worth more and some less, and then hire is not paid in kind. Because a man's slave hires for more s year than he did in 1850, is no reason why his money should. We will suppose A and B both to have \$1,000 in the year 1850. loans his out at ten per cent. ; B buys a slave with his, and hires slave out for \$100. Slave property in the last nine years has ranced one hundred per cent., so now, in 1859, B's slave is worth ,000, instead of \$1,000, as in 1850. Now, in order to realize ten cent. upon the money invested in his slave, B must hire him for 00 instead of \$100, as in 1850. But that is no reason why A ould have \$200 interest upon his \$1,000, but the reverse. It ows that in either case B has only realized ten per cent. upon his roperty. In 1850, B could have exchanged his slave for \$1,000, could have exchanged his \$1,000 for \$1,000 only. Now, B can change his slave for \$2,000, whereas, A can only exchange his ,000 for \$1,000, as in 1850. In this case I have compared s money with money, which relation is immutable, and have com-red B's slave with money, which is relative, and changes. Again, ppose A and B to have borrowed \$100 each from C in 1850, at i per cent. A pays his interest with flour which is worth \$5 per l., two bbls. amounting to \$10. B pays his in *specie*, \$10. In 59 they come again. By this time demand and supply have work-a great change. Money has become scarce, or all other com-dities have become plentiful, so that flour is now worth but \$2 50 e bbl., and all other commodities are cheap in proportion. Un-r these circumstances, it is agreed that A should pay C twice as ch for the use of his money as in 1850, which A accordingly does giving him four bbls. of flour instead of two; though in either e the flour paid by A amounts only to \$10. Having received ice as much from A as before, he naturally expects it from B, and demands. He shows B that money is worth twice as much now when he borrowed before. B admits the fact, but very naturally ncludes that *money is money*; and that if the \$100 principal is rth twice as much as before, for the very same reason his \$10 in-est ought to be worth more. He shows C that \$10 bears the ne identical relation to \$100 now that it did when he borrowed ore. He shows him that the relation is as 1 is to 10, and cannot varied. He shows him that although A had paid him twice as ch the last as he did the first time, yet in either case he has only id \$10; and rather than pay more he proposes to pay him with r bbls. of flour which he can buy with \$10. By this time C discov-his error and accepts the \$10. The same principle is true with o miller who grinds corn for toll in kind. If corn is worth more one time than at another is no reason why the miller should have re toll at one time than at another. When corn is worth more toll is worth more, and *vice versa*. The same is true of the man o cards wool or picks cotton or saws lumber, and takes his toll in id, and also to the man who hires money and takes the hire in kind. Examples might be multiplied, but it is unnecessary. We have said ough, and have given illustrations enough to show the difference

between paying in kind and in something else. We have shown that it is an exception to a general rule, and if the reader will investigate for himself, he will find every position which I have taken to be correct.

From what has been said we must conclude that demand and supply, of right, have nothing to do with regulating interest, and that the reason is because we pay the interest in kind.

This being the case, it becomes the imperative duty of each government to take the subject into its own hands and determine how much interest may be charged, and not leave it to the mere caprice of the lender. No nation can be true to her citizens that leaves them unprotected in this essential.

All the subject needs, at present, is investigation and discussion. When that is done the people will unanimously affirm them upon their present natural basis. Let us then have them discussed.

MADISONVILLE, Hopkins County, Ky.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—FREE TRADE AND LOW DUTIES.

SENATOR CLINGMAN'S Speech in Congress, a short time since, upon the subject of free trade and protective tariffs, embodies the soundest arguments, and is worthy of general study. He states the case very much as follows, as it relates to the effects of the tariff system :

A man in the Northwest, last year, worked very hard, and by his labor produced four hundred bushels of wheat, worth four hundred dollars. Another man in the South, working equally hard, produced eight bales of cotton, worth likewise four hundred dollars. Each of these men proposes to exchange his product for bar iron, and an Englishman stands ready to give each of them ten tons for his product ; but a Pennsylvania iron-master says : " This man is a foreigner ; I am your countryman ; trade with me." They assent to it, and an exchange is proposed between them. He says : " My iron costs me more to make it than the English iron costs its manufacturer, and I cannot let you have more than seven tons." They decline his offer, and are not willing, in this way, to lose the value of three tons of iron. He then appeals to the Government to impose a duty, or tax, of thirty per cent. on all purchases from the English, and it is done. One of these men says : " I shall lose the value of three tons if I trade with the Englishman ; I may as well trade with you. Take my wheat, and give me seven tons of iron." The Pennsylvanian, however, says : " I have supplied myself with wheat from my neighbor already ; sell your wheat for money, and then buy my iron." He goes to the Englishman and asks cash for his wheat, but is met with this declaration : " I could give you the ten tons of iron for your wheat, but I am not prepared to pay you the money." Suppose, however, he does not succeed in selling for cash ; if he then purchases the iron from the Pennsylvanian, he loses three tons ; and if the other planter does likewise, he loses the value of three tons of iron also. I use this simple illustration, but it is a fair statement of the case ; and the result is, that each of those individuals loses the value of three tons of iron, and the manufacturer gets six, and the Government receives not one cent. That is the policy to which the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Cameron) is endeavoring to drive us, by excluding foreign productions altogether. If, however, it should turn out, as is usually the fact, that the Pennsylvanian has only seven tons of iron, and cannot supply the

ands of both, then one of these men has to purchase of the foreigner, and result is, the Government gets the value of three tons in duties ; the Pennanian gets three tons as protection, and these individuals lose six between 1. * * * * If these two individuals should complain of that, the Pennanian tells them : " My iron establishment furnishes employment to American laborers." One of those men may say to him : " I keep a blacksmith's shop, where the iron is worked up into plows, and hoes, and axes, and used as industrial tools ; and this furnishes the means of employment to many." The other : " We are making in my section a railroad ; we are levelling hills and filling up valleys, to lay down more rails as fast as we can get them. We employ a vast amount of labor in making the road ; and when we get it done we open a market for our productions to the seaside, and in that way encourage all kinds of industry." It is demonstrable that the railroad will cause a greater demand for labor than the iron furnace. What then becomes of the American industry argument !

The Forty-Bale Theory of Gen. McDuffie, of South Carolina, made quite a sensation at the time, and was debated with much ability. It is thus presented briefly by Mr. Clingman :

A company of manufacturers, which he located in the North, would manufacture goods to supply the State of South Carolina ; another company of planters undertook to procure cotton, rice, and tobacco, to exchange them for goods to supply the demand of the same locality. He supposed each of these companies to bring in \$100,000 worth of their goods. When the manufacturing company bring in theirs, they can sell them at once, as there is no tax upon them ; let the exporting company, or company of planters, bring in their British goods, which they have obtained with the products of their own industry, and a custom-house officer says—" Before you sell these goods you must pay me 7 per cent.—that was about the rate of duty in his day—that is \$40,000 on \$100,000. These men have already paid \$100,000 in England, and they are to pay \$40,000 to the Government. If they sell for \$100,000, as the northern company does, of course they lose \$40,000 ; they realize but \$60,000. Nobody sees this must be so in the case stated. He argued that that was the theory of the system : that, for example, if they sold to the merchant, the merchant finding this burden was to fall on the goods, would give no more than could realize ; and even, if in the large way you import specie, very soon will import as much as can be used profitably, and thus raise the price of goods at home, which we must consume ; while our own productions were sold in foreign markets at the low rates there. In other words, he insisted that the export and accumulation of specie here would, in the end, produce a state of affairs which did not change the result of the case stated by him.

The error of this theory, as a whole, is obvious. Suppose the price of these goods should be increased in value ; suppose this company, when they introduced them, should be able to sell them for \$140,000, by adding the duty to the cost ; then they would lose nothing ; the Government would get its \$40,000.

The manufacturing company would likewise sell at the same price, and make a net profit of \$40,000. Thus the whole \$80,000 would fall upon the consumers of the country. That is the theory of the gentlemen on the other side, who contend that the enhanced price falls on the consumers entirely.

Let us take one step further. Suppose these planters themselves consume the goods ; and we know that in the United States most men consume nearly as much as they sell, perhaps ninety-five per cent. of it on the average. If they, of course, should consume these goods, of course they would pay the \$40,000 increased price by reason of the duty ; and thus they lose \$40,000, either as producers or consumers.

* * * * *
When I maintain that whatever burdens are levied by the tariff, must be paid either by the producer of the articles sent abroad, and exchanged for the dutiable goods, or it must fall on the consumers of the imports. It is usually divided between them, but they must pay it. Hence, when the farmer or planter furnishes exports, and also consumes the imports obtained for them, he must pay this

tax; and thus the system, either way, is just as oppressive to him as Mr. McDuffie supposed.

Mr. Clingman then proceeds to furnish the following statistics of the prices of cotton, and shows how they were influenced by tariff legislation, rising and falling with the duties.

AVERAGE PRICE OF COTTON.

From 1821 to 1824 inclusive.....	15 cents.
" 1825 1828.....	13.4
" 1826 1828.....	10.9
" 1829 1832.....	9.7
" 1833 1837.....	14.3
" 1838 1842.....	10.8
" 1843 1846.....	7.0
" 1847 1851.....	9.5
" 1851 1856.....	9.96
" 1847 1858.....	9.8

He adds:

We have gone over a period of nearly thirty-eight years, and six distinct changes. There was the condition which preceded the tariff of 1824; then, secondly, the condition which followed it; thirdly, that of 1828; fourthly, that of 1832-'33; fifthly, that of the tariff of 1842; and, sixthly, the period since, under that of 1846. If you go through all these periods, you will find the changes exactly as I state. But the case does not rest on this alone. Let us look, for a moment, at other products. I will not weary the Senate by going into details as to them; but I say, and each Senator can verify it for himself, if you take all the exports, during the four years of the tariff of 1842, of cotton, rice, tobacco, and everything, you will find that they brought \$30,000,000 less annually than they would have done at the prices of the previous four years; and if the products, which were sold in the four years that followed the tariff of 1846, had been sold at the prices of 1842, they would have brought \$30,000,000 a year less. That is to say, taking a period of twelve years, the four intermediate ones of which were occupied by the tariff of 1842, it will be found that, during its existence, we were losing \$30,000,000 a year on our exports.

But, sir, not only were the prices lower under the high tariff, but as the tariffs were reduced, the exports largely increased in quantity as well as in value. I find that during the existence of the tariff of 1842, the amount of breadstuffs which were sold for those four years averaged only \$18,000,000 a year; and for the twelve years since they have averaged \$46,000,000—two and a half times as much. It may be well enough to remark, in this connection, that, for the last five years, flour has been fifty-four per cent. higher than it was during the operation of the tariff of 1842; tobacco one hundred and fifty per cent. higher. Rice, and everything else, has advanced. And if you take all the exports under the tariff of 1842, their whole amount is just \$110,000,000 a year upon the average, and the imports \$106,000,000. For the last five years the exports are \$316,000,000, on the average, and the imports \$308,000,000. In other words, in twelve years, while the population of the country had increased not quite forty per cent., we have had nearly three-fold increase in our exports and our imports.

We have seen that we appear to have lost \$30,000,000 a year by the tariff of 1842, on those exports of \$110,000,000. If you applied the same rule to the present one, we should be losing nearly \$90,000,000 a year; that is, if the products sold for the last five years had been sold at the prices which prevailed under the tariff of 1842, the country would have got about \$90,000,000 less for them. This, too, recollect, is a comparison between two protective tariffs; that of 1842 was very high; that of 1846 is moderately high, though it was a step in the direction of free trade. Now, suppose we could take the whole distance; suppose we could actually come to free trade; there is not a Senator here, who has ever made the comparison, who will not say that the step from the tariff of

to free trade is a longer one than from the act of 1842 to that of 1846; in other words, if we gain \$90,000,000 a year by substituting the duties of 1846 for those of 1842, we should gain more than \$90,000,000 by coming to free trade. As a point of fact, I have no doubt that we lose \$100,000,000 a year, or more, as producers, under the operations of the present tariff.

2.—RECIPROCAL TRADE WITH BRITISH AMERICA.

The Board of Trade of Portland, Maine, have sent an able memorial to Congress, asking for an extension of the principle of the Reciprocity Treaty with Canada, so as to include manufactured goods as well as the products of the sea, the farm, and mine, which are now only included. This treaty has already produced the most beneficial results. We extract from the memorial:

The thirteen colonies had invited Canada to join in the Revolution, but without success, and failed to conquer it by the merest accident or chance of war. The people of the United States, no less than those of the colonies, saw the necessity of maintaining friendly relations with each other, and proposed, at the conclusion of the war, to allow the citizens of the provinces to participate in trade on equal terms with those of the United States. But the British Government refused. Two years later it was made the subject of distinct negotiation by our minister to England, but again rejected. In 1789, it was for a third time proposed, and rejected. From that time to 1822 there was not a British colonial vessel in which an American vessel could enter. By the relaxation of this law a trade gradually sprung up, and, in 1827, \$445,000 of colonial products were imported into the United States, against \$2,704,014 exports thereto.

Under the "McLane arrangement," of 1830, the trade increased, and immediately after the adjustment of our boundary disputes, by the treaty of Washington in 1842, efforts were made to extend intercourse between the two countries by means of railways.

In 1844, the project of railway from Portland to Montreal was entered upon, and successfully accomplished in 1853, increasing very largely the colonial trade.

Prior to this, or as early as 1854, the claim of the colonies of the right of self-government had been asserted, and this concession was finally made to them in the despatch of Earl Grey, in the latter part of the year 1846, the same year in which the law was proposed to withdraw all protection to colonial produce, on the part of the Imperial Government. Shut out of the markets of the United States by our tariff laws, and excluded from those of England by its geographical position, in the absence of means of communication with the Atlantic ocean, Canada sought reciprocal trade with the United States in the natural products of the two countries, while the United States desired an enlargement of their rights of fishery. These efforts resulted in the reciprocity treaty of June 5, 1854, by which a right to the fisheries was granted, and a free interchange was allowed of the products of the sea, the forest, the mine, and the farm, between the United States and all British North America. The effect of this arrangement is shown in the increase of the trade of the two countries.

The following table shows the trade between the United States and British North America:

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Excess of Exports.
7.....	\$145,000	\$2,704,014	\$3,149,014	\$2,289,014
9.....	2,826,880	5,932,106	6,758,986	3,105,326
2.....	6,110,299	10,519,305	16,519,305	4,398,717
3.....	7,550,604	13,140,642	20,691,246	5,590,038
4.....	8,927,560	24,566,800	33,494,360	15,669,300
5.....	15,136,734	27,806,420	42,943,154	19,000,286
6.....	21,310,421	29,029,349	50,339,770	7,718,929
7.....	22,124,296	24,262,482	46,386,778	2,138,186
1.....	13,806,519	23,651,721	39,458,240	7,945,206

3.—OUR TRADE WITH RUSSIA.

The arrival of the schooner *Harvest* at Hamburg has been noted by the press. She loaded at Sandusky City and proceeded thence to Cleveland, and through the Lakes and St. Lawrence to Hamburg. She was of 306 tons, was built in Cleveland, and took out a cargo of valuable forest woods for furniture.

Mr. Miller, American Consul at Hamburg, reports to the Department that the proprietors of the steamers between Lubeck and St. Petersburg have made arrangements with those running between Hamburg and New-York by which they propose to establish, at very low rates of freight, a direct system of transportation from New-York to St. Petersburg, via Hamburg and Lubeck. It is stated that hitherto the business between the United States and Russia has been transacted at only two seasons—one fleet of vessels leaving the United States in the spring in time to arrive in the Baltic by the opening of navigation, and another fleet going to the Baltic late in the autumn, to leave again before the navigation closes. The merchants have, therefore, but two regular communications per annum, and their capital is invested about six months in the purchase and shipment of their goods.

The facilities now combined would enable them to forward goods from New-York to St. Petersburg every fortnight during the season that navigation is open, by a transit which would consume but three weeks of time.

4.—TARIFF INFLUENCES ON TRADE.

Though we cannot agree with Mr. Kettell in his late article in the *Economist*, (and are much surprised to find so distinguished a political economist holding such views,) that there is an "*utter want of influence which tariffs exert upon the import or consumption of an article*," there is a great deal of truth in what he says about the influence exercised by the currency. To say, however, that consumption is not influenced by price, in which, of course, duties must enter, is one of the boldest paradoxes of the day! Mr. Kettell must review that opinion. He says:

The causes of business and of the use of articles are to be found in quite other circumstances. These are the customs and habits of a people, joined to the state of their general prosperity and the mode of doing business. Great Britain has become the great manufacturer of the world—the warehouse for the produce of all climes and nations, and the banker for the commercial world. This has, in a great measure, been accomplished by the activity and energies of the government, in forcing open markets in all quarters of the world, occupying everywhere government stations, seconded by the large capital and enterprise of her merchants, who are ready to sell goods on any credit, and make advances on any produce to be sent to her warehouses. It is this force of credit which breaks down all barriers, forces open all custom-houses, and opens all markets to her goods. The same agency of credit spreads her goods over the United States, and places them within the reach of every consumer, how remote soever he may be, or however small his means. The cheap money of England—2½ per cent. per annum—is put into goods that are sent here for distribution in competition with American goods that cost the dealers and holders interest at the rate of 10 to 30 per cent. per annum. The sales of the year are large by both importers and manufacturers. As the Fall draws on, specie begins to be shipped to Europe, money tightens, the banks refuse discounts, and the domestic dealers pay out the year's profits and more in usury to raise money for maturing paper. The tariff is no obstacle in such a state of affairs, nor can it be under any circumstances. The experience of the past year has shown that a collapse of credit destroys imports, even with a lower tariff. In 1857, at 24 per cent. duty, \$37,600,000 of cotton goods were imported in New-York. In 1858, at 19 per cent. duty, only \$19,250,000 came, because credit was less. The currency is, then, the means through which a steady market is to be reached, and this may be affected by the projects now before the public.

THE TOBACCO TRADE.

5.—THE TOBACCO TRADE.

he excellent commercial circular of Charles De Ford & Co., of Baltimore, been forwarded to us by those gentlemen. he inspections in 1858, in Baltimore, were 45,200 hhds. Maryland Tobacco ; 00 Ohio ; 3,000 Kentucky : 169 Virginia ; total, 70,669. Besides the above e were received for shipment 6,095 hhds. Virginia. he aggregate exports of leaf tobacco from Baltimore were 23,964 hhds. e than in the previous year, and 23,017 more than the average of the past 3 years, and was also far beyond any preceding year.

Statement of Leaf Tobacco.

Stock of leaf tobacco in Europe, December 31st, 1858.....46,000 hhds.
 " " in United States " " " 42,000 "

Total stock on hand, December 31st, 1858..... 88,000

Estimated for the incoming crops for 1858, viz. :

Maryland and Ohio.....55,000 hhds.
 Virginia.....60,000 "
 Kentucky and other Western States...85,000 "
200,000 "

Total stock for 1859..... 288,000 "

Consumption in Europe, 1859..... 130,000 "

Consumption in the United States in 1859, as follows, viz. :

Maryland and Ohio..... 2,500 hhds.
 Virginia.....40,000 "
 Kentucky 25,000 "
67,500 "

Total consumption for 1859..... 197,500 "

Stock in Europe and United States, January 1st, 1860... 90,500 "

Table of the Estimated Stocks of Leaf Tobacco on hand in Europe and the United States for the past nine years.

Years.	Europe.	United States.	Total.
.....	67,000	40,000	107,000
.....	55,000	38,000	93,000
.....	46,000	52,000	98,000
.....	45,000	56,000	101,000
.....	43,000	21,000	64,000
.....	32,000	15,000	47,000
.....	35,000	22,000	57,000
.....	40,000	15,000	55,000
.....	46,000	42,000	88,000
the average for the past nine years....	45,444	33,888	68,222

We estimated the stock of leaf tobacco in the United States, Great Britain and the Continent, on 31st December, 1858, at 88,000 hhds., being an increase r that of 1857 of 33,000 hhds., and 19,778 hhds. more than the average of 3 years. The crop of 1857 exceeded considerably the general estimate, h fact, together with the substitution of other tobaccos induced by the high s of American leaf, will account for the appearance of a larger stock on January 1st, 1859, than we had estimated.

RECEIPTS OF GRAIN, ETC., AT TOLEDO, IN 1858.

Statement of the Exports of Leaf Tobacco from the United States, for the years ending 30th June.

Years.	Hbds.	Bales.	Cases.	Value.
1855.....	150,216	13,913	13,366	\$14,712,468
1856.....	116,962	17,772	9,384	12,221,843
1857.....	166,848	16,622	6,631	20,662,772
1858.....	127,670	12,640	6,841	17,009,767
Average for past 4 years.	137,924	14,439	8,306	\$16,150,712

The above table shows the total exports of leaf tobacco during the year to be 23,179 hbds., 1,792 bales, and 790 cases less than the previous year, and 10,254 hbds., 1,799 bales, and 3,464 cases less than the average of four years, while the total value was \$3,653,005 less than in 1857, and \$850,055 more than the average of four years.

A joint resolution on the subject of the tobacco trade has recently been adopted by Congress, which is of much importance, and follows exactly the recommendations of the article, published not long since by us, from the pen of Mr. Buxwell, of Virginia, in the form of a report to the Southern Convention. The fourth clause of the resolution is as follows:

Resolved, That the diplomatic negotiations with England, France, Spain, and Austria, as well as with China and Japan, ought to be commenced as soon as practicable by the Government of the United States, with the view of obtaining a modification of the existing systems of revenue and taxation of those nations in respect to American tobacco, and for this purpose instructions ought to be given to our foreign Ministers, Consuls, and Commercial Agents, in those nations by the Executive of the United States, to use all their constitutional and legitimate functions in producing so desirable a result.

6.—RECEIPTS OF GRAIN, ETC., AT TOLEDO, IN 1858.

An account of the last year's receipts of grain and other articles at Toledo, has been carefully prepared and published in the *Toledo Blade*. This exhibit places that port next to Chicago in commerce, in a comparison of the lake cities west of Buffalo. Milwaukee received and exported nearly five and a half millions of bushels of breadstuffs, but fell greatly short of Toledo in other articles. The following table estimates the flour as wheat, at 5 bushels to the barrel:

Aggregate receipts of Grain in 1858.

Flour, to wheat, bushels.....	2,418,515
Wheat, "	2,631,425
Corn, "	2,198,738
Oats and Rye, "	166,824
Barley, "	171,962
Rye, "	20,475
Grain from teams, estimated bushels.....	125,000
Total receipts.....	7,732,939

By Canal and Railroad.

Pork, bbls.....	50,784
Beef, "	38,640
Domestic spirits, bbls.....	31,995

Lake Commerce of Toledo, 1858.

Arrivals.....	1,455
Clearance.....	1,356
Total tonnage.....	805,074

Navigation opened March 18th, and closed December 10th.

Among the articles received by lake were, in round numbers,

Lumber	20,000,000 feet.
Lath.....	5,500,000 No.
Shingle.....	10,000,000 "
Salt, bbls.....	154,000
" sacks.....	48,000
Water Lime, bbls.....	6,000

Live Stock.

The receipts and shipments of live stock at this point for the year 1858, by railroad and lake, were:

RECEIPTS.

	Cattle.	Hogs.
By T. W. and W. R. Rd....	48,304	132,600
" Mich. So. R. Rd.....	19,507	93,019
Total.....	65,811	225,619

SHIPMENTS EASTWARD.

	Cattle.	Hogs.
By Cl. and T. R. Rd.....	37,200	115,555
" Lake.....	27,397	62,405
Total.....	64,597	177,960

Among the articles taking the Toledo route, from the lower Mississippi river, were—

Cotton, bales.....	5,939
Sugar, hds.....	821
Molasses, bbls.....	540

This does not include what was received of these articles from Cincinnati, by railroad.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1—RAILWAY SYSTEM OF EUROPE.

We obtain the following table and the accompanying remarks from the *Rail-road Record*:

Name of Country.	Cost per mile.	Receipts per mile.	Per centage.	
			Proportion of expenditure to receipts.	Proportion which receipts less working expenditure bear to total capital.
Great Britain—	£	£		
England..... 1857	39 205	3 105	49.	4 19
Scotland..... "	28 225	2 040	44.	3 89
Ireland..... "	15 064	1 076	38.	3 97
Total.....	34 950	2 712	47.	4 11
New South Wales..... 1857	31 845	1 162	72 50	1 03
India..... 1857	10 280	729	42 25	4 09
France..... 1854	25 668	2 700	44 01	6 53
"..... 1856	16 391	2 158	58 16	5 48
Belgium..... 1857	16 300	1 814	63 39	4 68
"..... 1855	21 387	2 926	53 00	6 23
Austria..... 1857	18 445	2 686	53 58	6 71
"..... 1856	14 101	1 877	51 50	6 20
Russia..... 1857	14 486	1 983	45 22	7 44
"..... 1855	14 485	1 295	54 00	4 00
Prussian German States..... 1857	11 232	1 417	63 30	5 55

It will be seen from this table that, although the receipts from English traffic are larger than on the Continental lines, and although the working expenses are smaller on English railways than any other except the French, the net receipts only afford an average rate of four per cent. on the capital invested, instead of a return of above six per cent., as is the case in France, Austria, Prussia, and in the United States of America.

The great cost per mile of English railways has been partly due to the errors in legislation and to the cost of experiments made to perfect railway construction; partly to the anxiety of the early promoters of railways to adopt the easiest practicable curves and gradients; and partly also to the cost for land and compensations. On British railways this item has averaged from fifteen to twenty per cent. of the whole cost, while on foreign and American lines the proportion has been much smaller; for instance, the cost of land and compensation is about seven per cent. of the cost of German railways, which is barely equivalent to three per cent. upon the cost of British railways. The Continental nations have taken our dearly-bought experience as a gift. They have also avoided competition.

In France the Government has laid down the lines of railways and intrusted the construction to companies. In some cases the Government has constructed the earthworks and leased the working of the lines for limited periods; in other cases the Government has advanced money to be subsequently repaid; in other cases the Government has given a guarantee of interest.

In Prussia the companies have been allowed to select the lines, but they are executed under close supervision by the Government. The Government has also constructed lines of their own when the anticipated traffic have not offered sufficient inducement to private capitalists to embark in the undertaking.

In Austria the State has constructed several lines, but its recent policy has been to transfer them to private companies when they can be found to purchase them.

In Hanover and Bavaria the construction and working of railways has been undertaken by the Government.

About one half of the Belgian railways has been made and worked by the Government. These do not call for much remark; they were constructed at an early date, and the condition of the lines and of the rolling stock has apparently prevented a high speed being maintained. But the lines appear to be worked with great safety and regularity.

The condition of the Belgian Government railways is, however, to some extent, an instance of the slow progress in improvements which is the necessary result of a railway being in the hands of the Government. Many of our old English railways were constructed on the same model as the Belgian Government lines, but although the traffic in both countries has increased, our lines have been improved, while the Belgian Government lines have remained comparatively stationary, because of the difficulty of obtaining votes of money from the Legislative Chamber for the necessary alterations. A sum has, however, been recently given for effecting improvements.

The French and Belgian railways do not, however, differ so much in their construction and management from railways in this country as is the case with German railways. The railways over the whole of Austria, Prussia, and the German States have formed themselves into a union, which follows a uniform system, and presents peculiarities of management from which some useful hints may be gathered.

2.—RAILROAD SYSTEM OF ALABAMA.

We expect soon to publish entire the admirable letter of Lewis Troost, Esq., on the affairs and prospects of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company.

At this time we refer to another kindred subject.

It will be remembered that the Legislature of Alabama has provided for the survey of a proposed route of railroad, in which the people of the State seem greatly interested, north and south, with the view of connecting the waters of *the Tennessee with those of the Gulf of Mexico.*

In relation to the importance of the proposed work, the president of the company (Mr. Sloss) in a recent report speaks as follows:

That we may be the better enabled to judge of this, let us look at the extent the facilities for transportation within the State. In South and Middle Alabama the main channels or outlets for freights and travel are the Alabama river, the Alabama and Tennessee Rivers Railroad, and Montgomery and West Point Railroad. The southern terminus of the Alabama and Tennessee Rivers Railroad is at Selma, on the Alabama river, and the freights and travel upon a road, seeking a southern outlet, are dependent upon the Alabama river, which, like most rivers, is unreliable for the most part of the year, for cheap freights. The Montgomery and West Point Railroad connects with the Georgia roads extending to the South Atlantic ports; and while it meets the demands to a considerable extent for light freights, it is not adapted, nor does it meet to a great extent the demands, for heavy freights to and from the seaboard. The Mobile and Ohio Railroad, though a very important road to the South, cannot be considered so to the State, beyond the benefits arising to the city of Mobile, which are very considerable. Thus it will be seen that Middle and South Alabama require and must have a more direct and speedy outlet to the Gulf ports. The projected roads from the Gulf ports to Montgomery and Selma will more fully meet this necessity. These, together with the Northeast and Northwest Railroad, and a road from Montgomery to Eufaula, will afford to Middle and South Alabama ample facilities going southeast and northwest.

North Alabama, perhaps, has as great facilities for transportation as any portion of the State. The Tennessee river running in a westerly direction through her entire borders, affords, for a portion of the year, ample means of transit to those counties in the northwest; the Memphis and Charleston Railroad runs almost parallel with the Tennessee river, and affords to freight and travel a ready and sure outlet to Memphis on the west, and to the Atlantic ports upon the east; and yet, with these two important thoroughfares, the wants and necessities of the country are not fully met. The laws of commerce and trade are such as to seek the nearest, cheapest, and most rapid mode of transit; this being true, North Alabama requires a nearer, cheaper, and more direct route to the seaboard. As it now is, freight and travel at Decatur (the most central point) seeking the seaboard, must take the Memphis and Charleston Railroad to Memphis, a distance of 188 miles, and thence on the Mississippi river to New-Orleans, a distance of 800 miles, making the distance from Decatur to New-Orleans 988 miles; or, should it seek it at Charleston or Savannah, the distance from Decatur to Charleston would be 592 miles, or to Savannah 555 miles.

The distance from Decatur to Montgomery is 180 miles, and from Montgomery to Mobile or Pensacola 160 miles, making the distance from Decatur to the Gulf ports 340 miles. These ports are eminently adapted to our wants, and are greatly preferable to some of those just mentioned, as they are certainly much nearer to us. Take the following table of distances as evidence:

From Decatur to New-Orleans, via Memphis.....	988 miles.
" " " Charleston.....	572 "
" " " Savannah.....	555 "
" " " Mobile or Pensacola.....	340 "
Making a difference in favor of the route from Decatur to the Gulf ports, over that to New-Orleans, of.....	648 "
" " " Charleston.....	232 "
" " " Savannah.....	215 "

But, taking Nashville as the entrepot of the great Western trade, and the comparison becomes more favorable, as will appear from the following table of distances:

From Nashville to Charleston.....	597 miles.
" " " Savannah.....	580 "
" " " Gulf ports.....	460 "
Making a difference in favor of the route from Nashville to the Gulf ports, over that to Charleston, of.....	227 "

But to pursue the investigation still farther, let us see the comparative cost of shipping a bale of cotton over these several routes.

From the published rates, we find that the average through rates charged on a bale of cotton shipped from Nashville to Charleston, is one half cent per bale per mile, or about \$3 per bale from Nashville to Charleston. From Decatur to New Orleans it would cost, say—

From Decatur, by railroad, to Memphis.....	\$1 60
“ Memphis, per river, to New-Orleans.....	1 25
River insurance.....	50

Costing in all..... \$3 35

per bale, from Decatur to New-Orleans.

Taking, then, one half cent per bale per mile as the maximum through rates charged by railroads, it will be seen that it will cost, to ship a bale of cotton over the Central Road, \$1 70 from Decatur to Mobile or Pensacola, or only ten cents per bale more than is charged over the Memphis and Charleston Railroad to Memphis; and that it will cost \$1 65 per bale less shipped over the Central Road from Decatur to Mobile or Pensacola than to New-Orleans, and \$1 30 per bale less than to Charleston. The same results will apply to any and all other kinds of freights. Then, if the routes designated have been thronged with freights and travel—having become great national thoroughfares—and if the shippers of North Alabama and Middle Tennessee have found it best, and profitable, to ship cotton and other produce by railroads to Charleston and Savannah, will it not be advantageous, and is it not essential to the general good of the State, that the Central Road should be extended from Decatur to Montgomery?

It will be the means to a very great extent of building up the Gulf ports, which are now dependent mostly upon Middle and South Alabama and some portions of Mississippi for their trade. But by having a central trunk road extending from them due north to the lakes, traversing almost every degree of latitude—every character of soil, climate, and products—passing centrally through the States of Alabama, Tennessee, and Kentucky, it must necessarily become the great thoroughfare for the freights and travel of the vast population upon the lines.

3.—SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD COMPANY.

We are indebted to the courtesy of John Caldwell, Esq., President of the Company, for a copy of his very able report for the present year, from which we extract the following most gratifying statement:

The gross income, as shown by statement “A,” is.....	\$1,601,008 44
And the expenses of management.....	680,496 59
Leaving.....	820,511 85
From which deduct interest, damages, etc.....	192,432 21
And there is left a net income of.....	628,079 64
Against this, we have charged two semi-annual dividends, of \$4 and of \$4 25 per share (equal to 8½ per cent. per annum)...	320,067 00
And carried the balance of.....	308,012 64
as heretofore, to surplus income account.	
It thus appears that there has been an increase of.....	51,205 62
in the gross income of the company, over that of the preceding year, and an increase of net income of.....	83,537 00

The result must be highly satisfactory to the stockholders, more especially when it is considered that the prevalence of sickness in Charleston, for the months of August, September, and October, to a great extent, suspended the business of the road, both as to freight and passage, during the period referred to.

There has been a decrease of passage during the year of \$17,233 83 on loca-

business, and of \$60,378 on through business. The latter has been chiefly attributable to the opening of the Tennessee and Virginia route. It had been anticipated, that, as soon as that route should go into operation, a portion of the revenue would be withdrawn from the lower lines. But the extent to which that influence has been felt, is less than was supposed, and the condition of our income account proves that, whatever may be its effect, the increase on the general business of the company will more than supply the deficiency.

4.—VICKSBURG, SHREVEPORT, AND TEXAS RAILROAD.

We have always regarded this road to be of great importance to the people of New-Orleans, seeing that it must develop the northern portions of Louisiana, and constitute a link in the Southern Pacific Railroad. We were among the first to advocate the line of policy which led to its construction, having addressed a meeting at Shreveport as early as 1851, and urged upon the inhabitants its importance as a railroad centre.

The president of the road, Dr. Young, has recently visited New-Orleans for the purpose of disposing of its bonds, and we had the pleasure of a personal interview with him. These bonds are for the purchase of iron for about sixty miles, to Monroe, the grading on which is all completed. The road is entirely free of debt, and the following analysis of its condition is taken from the *Railroad Journal*:

The entire amount of expenditures, from the commencement of operations to the present time, is as follows:

For labor, materials, and rolling stock	\$764,727 24
For depot grounds and right of way	22 071 10
For surveying and engineering	69,935 17
For salaries	26,057 51
For printing	3 673 51
For office expenses	2,301 50
For contingent expenses	14,719 13
For commissions	8,788 61
For interest (balance of)	17,126 49
Cash assets	\$929,418 44
	62,632 30
Total assets	\$992,050 74

The entire amount received by the company, from the commencement of operations to date, has been derived from the following sources:

Individual subscriptions	\$349 910 11
Less amount of tax reduction	20,134 63
	\$329,775 49
Contractors paid in stock	240,586 03
State subscription	174,000 00
Subscription of Madison Parish, cash	71,587 50
Do. Caddo do. do.	54,282 67
Do. City of Shreveport do.	12,689 79
Bonds earned by Bonner & Co.	14,194 45
Do. Fannin & Co.	44,549 38
Cash due to do.	49,540 70
Land sold, rent, voluntary subscriptions, etc.	844 74
	\$992,050 74

MISSISSIPPI AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

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The above is a full statement of the financial condition of the company. There are no outstanding unsettled accounts, no floating debt, no indebtedness of the company of any form; except what is shown in the exhibit.

The means of the company to prosecute the work to completion, are:

Stock not paid in—Individual.....	\$279,424 51
Do. Mallison, (cash).....	28,412 80
Do. Caddo, do.	45,417 33
Do. Shreveport, do.	17,310 21
State, payable in bonds.....	426,000 00
Subscription of Fannin, Grant & Co.....	1,577,000 00
Total of subscription capital unpaid.....	\$2,373,864 55
420,924 acres of land at \$10.....	4,209,240 00
1st mortgage bonds.....	\$2,000,000 00
Less earned by contractors.....	58,743 83
	<u>1,941,256 17</u>
Total means unexpended.....	\$6,524,360 72

The estimated total cost of the road—of which 21 miles is in operation, and 50 miles in progress—will amount to \$9,924,360 72. Against this the total capital issued, and to be issued, will be:

Stock subscriptions.....	\$3,200,000
Bonds.....	2,000,000
Total.....	\$5,200,000

5.—MISSISSIPPI AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

We learn from the *Railroad Journal*, that, at the date of the previous report of this company, there were in operation 59 miles of road from Memphis to Panola, and contracts for the graduation of 12 additional miles to Yockana, were being let; but owing to the financial pressure, these contracts were recalled, and further operations in the construction department, suspended until July last. Since then, the work has been prosecuted with vigor, and it is hoped that by March next, these 12 miles will be ready for the iron.

The floating debt of the company at the commencement of the fiscal year, was \$227,494 37; this was subsequently increased to \$271,175 96, by estimates for work that was unfinished at the date of the report. This debt has since been reduced to \$161,991 42, toward the still further liquidation of which, the company have \$62,048 36 of reliable bills receivable, falling due, and \$89,227 of uncollected stock subscriptions, a considerable portion of which is available.

It is proposed to defer the further prosecution of the work on the additional 28 miles to Grenada, until the debt of the company is still further reduced.

The estimated cost of the unfinished 12 miles to Yockana is.....	\$230,000 00
Less amount already estimated and settled.....	\$34,362 18
Less iron on hand and settled.....	25,000 00
Less one fourth paid contractors in stock.....	30,000 00
	<u>99,362 18</u>
	\$130 637 82
Thence to Grenada, 28 miles.....	573,800 00
Add for additional equipment when the road is finished.....	110,000 00
Add present floating indebtedness.....	161,991 42
	<u>\$970,429 24</u>

To meet which the company has:

first mortgage bonds undisposed of.....	\$429,000 00
ills receivable.....	62,048 36
estimated available uncollected stock subscriptions of \$89,227...	50,000 00
Mississippi loan, uncollected.....	18,150 00
estimated net receipts for year 1858-'59.....	80,000 00
estimated net receipts from road year 1859-'60.....	100,000 00
	\$739,198 36

a deficit of assets, compared with the estimated expenditure, of \$237,230 80; which should be added \$200,000 of the above bonds, deposited as collateral with the State. To supply this deficiency, it is proposed to issue \$600,000 of come bonds, maturing in 10 years, with 7 per cent. interest, payable in Memphis, semi-annually, secured by a mortgage of the income of the road. It is ought that the earnings of the road will suffice to pay the interest on this debt, and still leave a handsome dividend for the stockholders.

The equipment of the road consists of 5 engines, 3 passenger, 2 baggage, 1 press, and 126 freight and construction cars.

DEPARTMENT OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

1.—THE IRON MANUFACTURE.

The Iron interests of Pennsylvania have been making the greatest effort to cure a larger protection than they now receive at the hands of Government, and Mr. Cameron, presenting their memorial, argues in this wise, to show that w duties do not increase the imports (i. e. consumption), or the revenues :

In table 47 of the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury of last year he gives the yearly average price of pig iron in New-York for thirty-seven years, from 1820 to 1857, which I find making an average for the whole time of 34 20 The duty on this price, at 30 per cent., would have been \$10 26 per n. Under the tariff of—

1824 it was.....	\$10 00
1828 "	12 50
1832 "	10 00
1833 "	9 47 4-5
1837 "	9 23 4-5
1839 "	8 47
1841 "	5 20 4-5
1842 "	9 00
1846 "	30 p ct.

I find, also, that the duty under the tariff of 1824, on rolled bar iron was 30 per ton, and other bar \$18 per ton. In 1828 the duty on rolled bar iron as \$37 per ton, and on other bar iron \$22 40 per ton. Under the act of 1832 the duty was reduced. In 1837, on rolled bar iron it was \$21 40 per ton, on her bars \$15 32 4-5 per ton. In June, 1842, on rolled bars \$19 60 per ton, on her bars \$12 87 1-5 per ton. By the act of August, 1842, on rolled bars 25 per ton, on other bars \$17 per ton.

By the act of 1846 it was made 30 per cent. ad valorem, and by the act of 1857 reduced again to 24 per cent.; and under the last act the business broke down.

Referring to the Secretary's report it will be seen that the average price of pig iron for twelve years, from 1846 to 1857, inclusive, was 29 06, and that at 30 per cent., the duty would have been \$8 70. From 1848 to 1852 the average price was \$23 54, and at 30 per cent. the duty was \$6 76, and yet the total consumption of iron and steel, and the manufacture thereof imported, was, during these five years of low duty, but \$84,326,254, whereas, during the next five years, from 1853 to 1857, inclusive, the consumption was \$234,432,328, though the price had risen to \$33 20, and the duty at the same rate would have been \$9 96 instead of \$6 76, showing conclusively that a low price and a low duty do not increase the imports or the revenue. It follows that this low duty is not the revenue standard.

2.—STATEMENT,

Showing the quantities and values of the principal Minerals and Metals produced in the United Kingdom in the years 1854, 1855, and 1856.

Minerals and metals.	Quantity produced.			Estimated value.		
	1854.	1855.	1856.	1854.	1855.	1856.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Coal.....	64,661,401	61,453,079	66,445,450	80,938,750	80,500,325	83,319,210
Copper, fine....	19,899	21,394	24,257	12,438,675	15,314,285	14,918,055
Iron, pig.....	3,069,638	3,218,154	3,586,377	61,396,625	64,563,080	71,727,640
Lead, metallic.	84,406	68,529	73,129	7,488,886	7,564,980	8,778,480
Zinc, white.....	5,974	6,000	6,177	2,450,000	3,600,000	4,107,766
	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.			
Silver from lead	558,559	561,006	614,180	703,220	702,380	767,350
Total value of mineral and metallic products.				186,308,155	171,331,100	182,815,440

3.—COMPARATIVE STATEMENT,

Showing the number of Cotton Factories in the United Kingdom of Great Britain, the number of Spindles and Power Looms, and the persons of each sex employed therein in 1850 and 1856.

		England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
Factories.....	1850	1,763	168	11	1,932
	1856	2,046	153	12	2,210
Spindles.....	1850	19,173,969	1,683,063	119,955	20,977,017
	1856	25,818,516	2,041,129	150,513	28,010,217
Looms.....	1850	223,626	23,564	2,437	249,627
	1856	275,590	21,624	1,633	298,847
Males employed.	1850	131,610	8,797	1,064	141,501
	1856	148,354	7,669	1,223	157,136
Females employed.....	1850	160,052	27,528	1,843	189,423
	1856	192,816	27,069	2,122	222,027

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

THE SUGAR CANE AND ITS DISEASES.*

(Concluded from page 299 of our last No.)

From the analogy of Indian corn and other tropicals, I do not suppose that the sugar cane suffers greatly from damp, hot weather, it being truly tropical in its character, and so consistent with the health of tropical plants, unless attended with a suffusion of water about the roots. Indian corn, when once started in the spring, grows with less moisture than any other tropical cultivated at the North. At the same time it bears, without marked injury, a large amount of moisture at mid-summer and early autumn, provided the sub-soil be dry, and the weather warm. It is cold, damp weather that injures corn. Such analogically would be the case with sugar cane, and such I infer is the fact. (See *Transactions of the Patent Office*, 1853, p. 356, article, "Climatology"). The principal injury to the sugar cane, from warm, damp weather, would be in autumn, when it would lead to excessive development, and interfere with those elaborations which bring the juices of the plant into a crystallizable state, that is, ripen it. And such is its injury to corn.

* By C. E. Goodrich, of Utica, New-York.

In both, the ordinary decline of heat, experienced at the commencement of autumn, is needful to terminate the expansion of the plant, and dispose it to mature, especially in the case of the cane, which is already too late for the climate.

THE INFLUENCE OF DRY, HOT WEATHER.—This phase of weather not being peculiar to the region of the sugar cane, in the United States of America, should not be dwelt upon emphatically here, although its effect may be properly noticed. Such weather, by withholding the amount of moisture needful to distend the ant, and aid its elaborations and depositions, while it is highly stimulated by heat, will prevent its growth, since the appropriate absorptions from the earth and air are thus impeded. In extreme cases, the whole plant is dwarfed, and its elaborations are small in quantity, and poor in quality. Such was the result of the extreme drought in 1854, in the culture of tomatoes and melons, and probably other tropical plants not particularly noticed. Those tomatoes and melons were scarcely eatable in quality. With Indian corn, however, the case was different. Here the ears, though but half their usual size, in cob and kernel, were sound, and very early. Analogically, I infer, that dry, hot weather would affect sugar cane similarly, that is, reduce the size of the plant and the quality of sugar, without deteriorating its quality. In the early spring, such weather might prevent the free germination of the cane. Such weather, carried to a moderate extent, is useful in bringing the elaborations of most tropicals to a high state of perfection.

THE SEASON OF THE SUGAR-GROWING STATES IS TOO SHORT FOR ITS PERFECT MATURITY.—What the ascertained period of the growth of the sugar cane is, I do not know, or rather I believe it is not fixed, but varies with general temperature, quantity of rain, and sudden transition from summer to autumn. Vegetable growth being in the combined proportion of length of summer and climatic influence, will obviously be greatest when the season is at once long and hot. Definite periods in the growth of cane, as in that of Indian corn, will depend on the dryness of the transition from summer to autumn, since, without such transition, cane, as well as many other plants, would grow almost indefinitely. Facts prove, however, in our own cane-growing districts, and with the varieties there cultivated, that the season is not long enough to give due development to the ant, and at the same time to mature its juices, since autumn frequently finds the whole plant imperfect.

Recollecting now the successive steps of this argument—coolness, instability, shortness of season—it is painfully apparent that *climate, season, or weather*, has much to do with the disease of the sugar cane.

The Rev. J. B. Pinney, formerly the governor of the colony of Liberia, in Africa, lately told me that, in Liberia, the ratoon cane is cut in high perfection, year after year, without the necessity of replanting. He also informed me, on the authority of an intelligent merchant of New-York city, that there are plantations in Cuba on which ratoon cane has been cut profitably for eighteen successive years, without replanting. Need we any stronger evidence of the essential imperfection of the climate of the Southern United States, at least, in reference to all the varieties of cane hitherto cultivated there?

CULTURE AS AFFECTING THE HEALTH OF THE SUGAR CANE.

MODE OF PROPAGATION.—My remarks on the question of propagation by cuttings, in the case of the grape, may here be referred to, to save repetition. This mode of propagating the sugar cane is not only the most ready, but also indispensable in all common cases where an immediate crop is sought; but,

1. To say nothing of the mode, when long pursued, as intrinsically tending to reduce deterioration, is it not obvious that this result would probably be produced, when we consider that all the varieties of cane actually in use in the cane-growing States, are a little too late for the climate, and that they are often rendered still more immature by the infelicity of the season? These causes may all be supposed to accumulate from year to year.

2. This evil is enhanced by the unwise practice, which has extensively prevailed, of using the tops of the canes for planting. These, as being last formed, are the least matured, and so have the least vitality to carry them through the winter, and the least amount of organizable matter to impel the germ in the succeeding spring. This practice is not universal, but may have been resorted to

often enough to injure the whole stock now in use. When such top canes are not used for seed, those from the old root, called ratoon cane, are employed. (See *Patent Office Report* of 1848, p. 286.) Such canes, just like the grafts of an old tree, have less vitality than those taken from the plant cane of the last year's culture; for, although the whole race is in a state of decline, the last and most vigorously grown plants will make the best cuttings. The failure of this ratoon cane, grown from roots but a year old, is a sad proof of the state of exhaustion of the whole race, and may be contrasted with the condition of many foreign grapes which are kept in tolerable health by being frequently reproduced by layers or cuttings from the old root.

8. So, also, the influence of a Louisiana winter should be taken into the account. In the Northern States, the cuttings of the grape, gooseberry, and quince, and the grafts of other fruit trees, are most carefully chosen from well-ripened wood. They are often not cut until the very close of winter. Previously to being cut, they are all, with the exception of the grape, capable of bearing the most intense cold of our winters, without injury. When cut, whether earlier or later, they are either buried out of doors, where they are kept in a frozen state, often almost up to the week in which they are set, or they are stored in damp earth, or saw dust, in our cellars, where the temperature is steadily but a little elevated above freezing.

The sugar cane cutting, whether planted in the autumn, or otherwise preserved from frost, for spring planting, cannot be kept in the same state of quiescence. It has also the disadvantage of having a more vascular structure, and more fermentable juices than the cuttings of hard woods. For both these reasons it is liable to injury from the changeful temperature of a Southern winter. Any unnatural heat, in the middle of the winter, would predispose it to germinate, as here in the case of potatoes stored a little too warmly. Such predisposition being checked, would tend to a state of fermentation and decay in the juices. That danger is actually incurred in this way, is evident, from the fact that the cane frequently rots in the ground in wet winters, and in soils not well drained.

In climes congenial to the culture of sugar cane, the season of winter rest is so short that, the cane cuttings being planted in good order, their juices immediately commence those changes needful for the germination of them. Thus the germs of the cuttings are pushed into the atmosphere just as soon as it is warm enough to receive and foster them. In Louisiana there are long weeks of weather so cold and damp as to exercise no favorable influence preparatory to its germination in the spring. In short, the influence of using imperfectly ripe cane for seed, and its exposure to irregular winters, must accumulate from year to year. In the end, these evils must work the same injury, in the culture of cane, that the habitual use, in other places, of the seeds of immature tomatoes, cucumbers, or melons, would do. Eventual depreciation of constitutional vigor must necessarily result to every organized being, whether animal or vegetable, from such frequent and severe trials of health.

Can it be for a moment doubted that injury has actually thus resulted in the culture of cane? Many careless cultivators of such tropicals as cucumbers, melons, tomatoes, etc., often find these plants depreciating in their hands, and they need to renew their seed from the gardens of more careful cultivators.

In a careful selection of dry, warm soils for tropicals, with the use of hot beds in forwarding the more tender of them, and the careful selection of well-ripened and perfect fruits for seed, I have found their vigor not only sustained, but often improved. The occasional infelicitous influence of an unfavorable cold season, like 1848, or a very dry one, like 1854, is usually retrieved in the succeeding year. On the other hand, in the cultivation of a plant like the sugar cane, in a climate a little too cool and irregular, and a season too short, and by unwise choice of seed cuttings, it seems impossible to save the plant from eventual and rapid depreciation.

Amid the imperfections of soil, season, and culture, even our hardiest perennial fruits and vegetables eventually depreciate, and need renewal from the seed, whatever may be said of the durability of such perennials under supposed modes of culture.

MANURING.—Whatever gives rapid development to vegetation, results in the disproportionate production of cellular tissue over woody fibre, and thus

exhibits a watery and tender state of the plant. This difference is made strikingly apparent wherever the gardener, in the spring, forwards some cabbage plants in a hot bed and others in open culture. On transplanting both, on the same day and into the same soil, it will be found that the plants raised in open culture, though smaller in size, will have a decided advantage should the subsequent weather happen to be cold and changeful. Even hardy plants, as wheat, barley, and oats, in cold and irregular, but much more in hot, damp weather, are more liable to rusts and mildews, when overgrown in highly manured soils, than when grown in a soil of medium fertility.

Again, the influence of a highly manured soil drives the expansion of the plant too far, and does not always permit the formation of flowers and the setting of fruit sufficiently early. In 1834, I set a row of tomatoes in my garden, beginning at the rich, moist termination of a sink-drain, and retiring from it in a direction up hill into drier and poorer soil. My fruit began to ripen on the top of the hill, and gradually descended toward the sink-drain, the last three or four hills not maturing a single fruit. Every observant cultivator will call to mind similar facts. In the application of these principles to the cultivation of sugar cane, it may be observed that, had it always been cultivated in a soil of but moderate fertility, the crop would have attained its utmost expansion at an earlier part of the season, thus allowing the whole force of the termination of summer and the beginning of autumn to be expended on the maturing of the secretions of the plant. It is also in accordance with all experience that vegetation meets the advance of the cool, damp weather of autumn safely, almost exactly in the proportion of its maturity. The full realization of this idea, however, involves the use of such varieties of any plant under cultivation as admit of sufficiently early maturity in ordinary seasons. I am well aware how this subject presents itself to the cultivator of the sugar cane. His first object is a heavy crop of cane, in the hope of a correspondingly large return of sugar. But, in a climate presenting all the imperfections of ours every cultivator must make his choice between a larger crop of possibly diseased cane, or a smaller one of probably healthier. Sugar canes grown in very rich soils are found to be inferior in quality of juice, of which a double quantity is needed to make a given amount of sugar. (See *Patent Office Report*, 1855, p. 275.) This is an indication that much manuring will prove injurious in such a climate as ours, especially with the late maturing and exhausted sorts now in use. Indeed, such stimulation only interacts with the other unfavorable conditions, and thus more rapidly and effectually precipitates it into disease. With a better stock of seed cane, a longer season and a more congenial climate, there would be little danger in the most generous application of manures. Such a climate would secure health under almost any circumstances of impulsive culture. It is plain, then, that the safety with which manures are applied to the culture of the cane in tropical regions is but an imperfect guide to us.

ROTATION OF CROPS.—Whatever may be the cause, whether the gradual exhausting of appropriate nutriment in the soil, or the deposition of excrementitious poison, few plants bear culture on the same soil through many successive years. Cruciform plants, such as cabbage, radishes, and turnips, I have found especially injured by such consecutive planting. The injury in this case, I think, is occasioned by excrementitious poison rather than by exhaustion. Corn, on the other hand, never seems to suffer from this cause. In August, 1842, I saw a large field of corn, in Licking County, Ohio, on the farm of a friend, which was said to be the thirty-seventh successive crop grown on the same ground; yet it stood, in what was considered a bad corn year, thirteen feet high. From the analogy of Indian corn to the sugar cane, I should infer that the latter would bear continued cultivation through many successive years, provided the soil were naturally highly fertile; and such, I believe, is found to be the fact. I have previously suggested that, in the wise culture of cane there need be very little, if any, exhaustion of mineral elements in the soil; yet, as every soil is not constituted with a high degree of fertility, and as all culture is not wise, it is certainly advisable, from general agricultural analogy, to rotate the culture of sugar cane with other crops whose draft upon the soil shall be most dissimilar to that of the sugar cane.

MECHANICAL CULTURE.—The more frequently and deeply a soil is stirred

about the plant, provided due care be had of the roots, the greater will be its progress. In a perfect climate and a long season this might be done fearlessly; but in a short season and with an imperfect climate, and in the use, moreover, of feeble and late-growing varieties of any particular plant, such a course of culture becomes harmful in the same way that high manuring does in the section above. In both cases, and especially where they act jointly, the plant is provoked into a late and immature growth, which greatly jeopardises its health.* I do not know what the facts are in the actual mechanical culture of the sugar cane, further than that "the cultivator's aim is to get fine large canes in as short a period as possible."

WIDE PLANTING.—Few facts are better established in agriculture than the superior health of plants when planted at such distances as admit of the full enjoyment of air and light. These influences being indispensable conditions of vegetable growth, any diminution of them, especially in a tropical plant, must be greatly injurious to its prosperity, and result in lessened health, size, and value of secretions. Wide planting is found very important in the culture of Indian corn, not only to its health, but also to its development and productiveness. Close planting is very noticeably opposed to the health, both of the grape and the potato, and very prejudicial to the fruitfulness of all other tropical plants.

RECAPITULATION AND CONCLUSION.

1. **CAUSES OF DISEASE.**—If the foregoing reasoning, both direct and analogical, be correct, and the report of facts quoted in the culture of sugar cane, be correct, also, the disease of that plant (even after making large admissions for the possible influence of exhaustion of the soil, in many cases from long cropping,) is referable—

a. To climate considered as too cool and fitful, and presenting a season too short for the maturity of the crop. This, I suppose, is the great cause.

b. To the too long use of cuttings, often very unwisely chosen from the most unripe cane, frequently injured during the winter season, and derived from varieties of the cane not adapted in season of maturity to the climate of the sugar-growing States.

c. To a soil often naturally or artificially too rich or impulsive, which, joined with a course of culture often too stimulating, provokes the late growth, and consequent imperfect maturity of the crop, especially when planted too thickly.

2. **THE IMMEDIATE REMEDY.**—If the preceding view of the causes of disease be correct, an immediate remedy would involve—

a. The selection of soils of but moderate fertility, and those well drained, and naturally, from mechanical structure, warm, especially for the culture of seed cane.

b. The use of cuttings from the strongest varieties, carefully selected, and carefully wintered.

c. A course of culture not too protracted in the season, and at such distances as shall secure the highest influence of sun and air.

d. Such a rotation of crops, especially on soils not best adapted to the culture of the sugar cane, as shall give the soil adequate rest.

3. **THE REMOTE REMEDY.**—a. The procurement, from some climate, appropriate to the culture of sugar cane, of cuttings of varieties adapted, in hardiness and earliness of maturity, to the climate of the sugar-growing States.

b. The procurement of the true seed of the cane, either from tropical regions, or from the cuttings just mentioned, the preference being given to seed produced in our own country.

c. The procurement of new varieties from such seed—varieties hopefully invested with high climatic adaptations.

d. The cultivation, annually, of a small plot of cane, in the manner indicated under the immediate remedy, hoping thus to secure cuttings for seed cane of the highest quality, for the perpetuation of the species.*

* Since the preceding article was written, a friend has put into my hands—*Hortus Jamaicensis: or a Botanical Description of the Indigenous Plants hitherto known, and also of the most useful Exotics in the Island of Jamaica.* By John Lunan, in two volumes, quarto—the

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

I.—JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI.

THE following is from the pen of Prof. George Steuckrath, now travelling in Mississippi, in connection with this Review :

After a very pleasant trip from Vicksburg, on the Southern Railroad, which is so ably presided over by Wm. C. Smedes, Esq., who, as the partner of the late S. S. Prentiss, was no less distinguished as an elegant civilian, than as a profound and erudite lawyer, I find myself heartily welcomed among our friends at the metropolis of the State of Mississippi.

This Capital was founded in November, 1821, by General Thomas Hinds, and Dr. Wm. Lattimore, and called Jackson in honor of General Andrew Jackson. While alluding to the founders of this city it may not be amiss to refer, incidentally, to the services of General Thomas Hinds, who was greatly distinguished in military affairs, particularly the battle of New-Orleans, at which he commanded the cavalry of the Mississippi Territory, and did much to secure the honors that belonged to the 8th of January, 1815.

Jackson is delightfully situated on the Pearl River, in a very fine and fertile region of country. It is not celebrated for its commercial advantages particularly,

second volume (the only one which I have seen) containing 400 pages, was printed in 1814. This work devotes ten pages to the natural history, culture, etc., of the sugar cane. From its pages I make extracts corroborative of some of my positions in the preceding article:

"The root of the sugar cane is jointed, like that of other sorts of cane or reed. From this arises four, five, or more shoots, proportionable to the age or strength of the root, eight or ten feet high, according to the goodness of the ground. In some moist, rich soils, canes have been measured nearly twenty feet long, but these were not as good as those of middling growth, abounding in juice, but having little of the essential salt. . . . The flowers are produced in panicles on the top of the stalks. They are from two to three feet long, and are composed of many spikes, nine or ten inches in length, which are again subdivided into smaller spikes. . . . The seed is oblong, pointed, and ripens in the valve of the flower. It has been asserted that the sugar cane is not indigenous in America, but that it migrated through Europe, which may be doubted, as Father Hennepin, in 1680, found it growing near the mouth of the Mississippi, for thirty leagues; and Francis Ximenes, Hernandez, and Pile, all affirm that the sugar cane grows spontaneously near the Rio-de-la-Plata. Jean de Leary, who went to Rio Janeiro in 1536, also asserts that he found every where a great quantity of sugar canes. It is thought by some that Columbus introduced the plant into Hispaniola in his first voyage; but the opinion that it may be a native of America and the West Indies is much strengthened by the sugar cane having been found in such plenty in the South Sea Islands.

"There are several varieties of this valuable plant; but the cultivation of all has been for some years past, greatly neglected, to make room for the Otahite, or Bourbon cane, which was brought here in 1796, and has since been generally cultivated. This cane is of a much larger size than any other, the joints frequently measuring eight or nine inches, and of a proportional thickness; the common cane seldom exceeds two or three inches. They have consequently been found very productive, and their sugar of a superior quality. . . . The juice of the Bourbon cane is of a paler color, and they are ripe enough to grind in ten months. From their size, they resist dry weather much better than any other cane, and are not nearly so subject to suffer from that destructive insect, the borer. With all these seeming advantages, it is no wonder if they entirely supersede the use of all other varieties of the sugar cane in Jamaica. They however more speedily exhaust the soil, and it may be questioned whether, in the course of time, they will not themselves dwindle from repeated transplantations in a foreign soil, which all exotics do; and which, indeed, has already been found the case, in a considerable degree, on many plantations. The old cane, it is acknowledged, possessed richer juices than the new, and its top afforded a much greater quantity of food for cattle, which considerations led to that of their not impoverishing the soil so much as the other, render it very doubtful whether the ultimate benefit will be so great as was anticipated."

The portions of this extract to which I wish especially to draw attention, are those in italics. This work was written more than forty years ago, but already, even then, the Bourbon, or Otahite cane, which the Louisiana writers consider as two different sorts, and which, under the name of Bourbon, is the one there principally cultivated, was beginning to show signs of failure in the climate of Jamaica. It is not wonderful, therefore, that it is now rapidly deteriorating in that of Louisiana. In both localities, large size of cane—the result of too impulsive culture—is attained at the expense of deterioration in quality of juice. In many specimens of West India cane, seen in the sugar hog-heads of this city, during the past winter, I have noticed that they were all shorter jointed than the reported length of the Louisiana cane, the result, obviously, of a less impulsive and so more healthful course of culture.

but being intersected by the Southern and Great Northern Railroads, it is a point of more than ordinary importance. The "State House" is built partly of limestone of an inferior character and partly of brick, which gives the appearance of being an older edifice than it really is. At a distance, however, it presents rather a grand exhibition of architecture.

The enclosure of the Capitol is not adorned by walks, promenades, flowers, etc., etc., such as should always greet the eye at the principal building, which is so frequently visited by the fair sex.

The officers in the interior are: the Governor, the Secretary of State, Attorney General, Treasurer, Auditor of Public Accounts, and State Librarian. The Supreme Court, or High Court of Errors and Appeals, is holding its term here at the present time.

In the lower part of the enclosure is situated the Arsenal of the State, which reflects credit upon the military reputation, now so deservedly enjoyed by Mississippi.

As one enters the gate, in its front, his eye immediately rests upon the cannon which were taken by General John A. Quitman at Alvarado, in 1847, and presented to the State as trophies of the American arms in the war of Mexico.

Leaving the Capitol I next visited the Penitentiary, containing 145 convicts, which is surrounded by a wall of about twenty feet in height and embraces more than twenty acres of ground. The edifice itself is a specimen of architectural skill, that rivals any institution of the kind in the South. Its apartments are well arranged, and its internal management of the first order.

The Lunatic Asylum is situated in a beautiful grove about two miles from the city. It is a fine stone building, and one of which the State may well feel proud. Appropriations are annually made for its maintenance. It is lighted with gas, an advantage which the city cannot boast.

The Institution of the Blind is located in the northern part of the city, and receives a fostering care and protection from the State through all seasons of the year. It is a large frame building, with walks regularly laid off and adorned with the rarest kind of shrubbery.

In the western part of the city is to be seen the Deaf and Dumb Institute, and, like the Blind Asylum, it is a wooden structure with a lovely grove in front.

The Executive Mansion, which the State has so liberally provided as a residence for its Governor, is the handsomest abode to be seen in the Southern country. It is a brick building adorned with Doric columns in front, surrounded by beautiful sidewalks, shrubbery, floral and botanical plants. It is presided over by the wife and accomplished and lovely daughters of his Excellency William McWillie. It is generally known that the entertainments and dinners given by the Governor's lady are of that superb and magnificent order which betokens a taste refined and cultivated.

The population of Jackson is about 4000.

Its educational institutions and the primary departments are of the first class.

The religious denominations, comprising Presbyterian, Methodist, Catholic, Christian, Baptist and Episcopal, have each its own house of worship, with able and efficient ministers. The attendance is always large, which gives assurance that Jackson is a place of high moral character.

There are three newspapers: the *Mississippian*, *Eagle of the South*, and *Mississippi Baptist*, all of which are conducted with signal ability.

The *Mississippian* is a semi-weekly paper, and the oldest in the State. It was founded in 1833 by Governor Henry S. Foote and James Catlett, Esq. Its present able Editor, Major E. Barksdale, has been frequently spoken of for high official positions, but his devotion to the cause of journalism has invariably prompted him to decline.

There are but two Hotels in the place, of which I am aware—the "Bowman House" and the "Dixon House." The former is a most capital hotel, while the latter, though not of an inferior order, is yet more private in its character.

The proprietor of the "Bowman House" is Mr. H. Hilsheim, a gentleman in every respect qualified for the position which he now holds; and all must acknowledge the obligations under which he has placed the traveling public, for his superior accommodations and polite and attentive servants. The building is of brick and embraces the whole square—almost an acre of ground.

Southwest from the Capitol is the City Hall, a large building of brick, which is appropriated to the business of the city, the Circuit Court of the United States, and also contains the Masonic and Odd Fellows Halls. It embraces the whole square, and the lot surrounding it, I understand, is soon to be handsomely adorned with walks, shrubbery, floral plants, etc., etc.

I find the citizens of the metropolis accommodating, generous, and disposed to contribute to the enjoyments of strangers by every means in their power; and it is a sufficient commentary upon their endeavors to say that they never fail of success. The ladies are beautiful, lovely, modest, retiring, and combine the elements of Roman suavity with Parisian elegance.

Having prolonged this sketch, already drawn out beyond the limits I had assigned, I must now conclude by tendering my warmest acknowledgments to the citizens of the place.

I cannot omit to mention the success and prosperity which have attended the late Historical Society of Mississippi, whose address was published in the February number of the Review, and which bids fair to fulfil the expectations of its most sanguine friends.

I had almost forgotten to mention the State Fair ground lying in the eastern portion of the city, which is a splendid place, and has been numerously visited during the last two fairs, at which time and place a great quantity of fine stock was exhibited and gave entire satisfaction. The citizens anticipate that in the course of this year their exhibition at the State Fair will be equal to any one in the adjoining States. I hope they will not be disappointed.

2.—MISSOURI.

The report of the State Auditor shows a large increase in the valuation of property in Missouri during the past year. The following is his gratifying exhibit:

VALUATIONS IN 1857.

Land.....	\$124,747,730 08
Town lots.....	64,375,933 00
Slaves.....	41,655,608 00
Personal property.....	31,187,291 81
Valuation of money, bonds, etc.....	26,013,470 00
	\$287,980,032 89

VALUATIONS IN 1858.

Land (including lots in St. Louis).....	\$221,605,766 94
Town lots.....	14,287,023 00
Slaves.....	45,090,023 00
Personal property.....	39,071,378 33
Value of money, notes, bonds, etc.....	35,565,380 00
	\$355,621,578 27

The total amount of State bonds received by the railroads up to this time, is \$9,056,000. The amount yet to be issued is \$5,894,000. The Governor speaks in length of the condition and prospects of the railroads, and seems disposed to treat them with great liberality, recommending more aid to the Pacific, and suggesting a stay of execution against the defaulting North Missouri and Iron Mountain.

3.—NATURAL CURIOSITIES IN ALABAMA.

A correspondent of the *Mobile Mercury* writes a letter from Bibb county, Alabama, from which we extract the following:

Bibb county has some of the wildest and grandest scenery. On the Cahawba are lofty, precipitous bluffs, overhanging cliffs, and rushing torrents, which / the famed beauties of the Hudson. It has caves, deep, tortuous, and dark / rebus. It requires nerves of steel to thread their gloomy labyrinth, by the

flame of a torch which almost refuses to burn in such an atmosphere. There is a cave where no man has ever yet dared to tread. It is a subterranean passage of a large creek, for 500 yards under a hill of limestone rocks. The rocks baffle above its mouth, in broken layers, threatening to crush to death the adventurous intruder in their secret chambers. It is an abyss of frightful and unimaginable errors, which it chills the heart even to contemplate. But "the secrets of this prison house" are doomed to be revealed, or to lock up a secret, yet more awful—the death of two adventurers who have resolved to explore it. A Mr. D. and myself will certainly explore it in the coming spring.

There is a very wonderful and curious natural phenomenon in this region, which, strange to say, I never heard of before. That it is unknown, is only a proof of the indifference with which natural wonders are regarded by those who live near them. There is a vast tract of territory on both sides of the Cahawba river, embracing an area of from 14 to 20 miles wide, and 40 miles long; a wild, bleak, and desolate region. It is almost uninhabited, for it defies cultivation. It has two names, which are strongly expressive of its character. Its more ancient appellation was "The Shades of Death," but its now popular appellation is "The Ogles."

It bears the marks of ancient mining, in ditches, excavations, furnaces, ornaments, and other relics. It is the extraordinary story, that a hundred years or more ago, a company of Spaniards, from Florida, made an incursion into this region, in search of the precious metals. They discovered here a mine of silver, and worked it for a long time, but were so harassed by the Indians that they finally abandoned it. An ancient man, who died many years ago, was himself a witness of the fact, and verified it by his testimony. The earth, itself, bears ample, but positive evidence of the truth of the tradition. Its surface presents an assemblage of sharp, fused, volcanic rocks, shapeless and cavernous. Interspersed among it are patches of wild grass, that feed the herds of deer which find its solitude a congenial haunt, and a partial refuge from pursuing "hound and horn."

4.—STATISTICS OF THE PAST YEAR.

MARINE DISASTERS FOR 1858.—The following is a statement of American vessels reported in each month of the year as lost and missing, with their estimated value:

	Steamers.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Value.
January.....	—	5	2	1	5	\$270,000
February.....	2	10	3	6	16	650,000
March.....	1	6	5	4	8	400,000
April.....	—	3	4	9	14	460,000
May.....	—	5	6	2	14	340,000
June.....	—	6	1	5	9	290,000
July.....	—	5	5	1	8	298,000
August.....	—	1	5	4	7	175,000
September.....	—	2	3	4	9	255,000
October.....	—	4	2	1	12	285,000
November.....	1	7	1	4	13	520,000
December.....	—	8	4	4	21	530,000
Total.....	4	63	41	45	136	\$4,471,000

5.—VOLCANIC INDICATIONS IN LOUISIANA.

PROF. THOMASSY claims to have discovered unmistakable evidences of volcanic action in Louisiana, and has contributed a paper to the *New-Orleans Delta* upon that subject. These are found at Miller's Island, Petite Anse, Belle Isle, Cote Blanche, and Weeks' Island:

"The formation of their soil—about identical as regards themselves—is essentially different from that of the surrounding land; and their laying out by the

me line shows, already, when you look at the map, that an identical cause has contributed to their formation.

The first of these, Miller's Island, named also Orange Grove, from its number of orange trees, is a kind of platform where you walk up, by insensible degrees, nearly 40 feet above the level of surrounding lands. At that point you suddenly find yourself above a small, pretty lake, and may see on the abrupt declivity this side, three very distinct kinds of upheaved strata. The first is that of a vegetable soil, and detritus of plants proper to this insular elevation; the second is a bulk of coarse gray and earthy sand; the third and inferior, visible in a small corner cleared nearly at the lake level, is a bed of pure quartzose, and in gravel, with edges very little worn out, and showing that, being not much filled by water, they have reached their actual place, from a not very distant country.

Precisely before this place, the lake, half filled up through the agency of me, is from 15 to 20 feet deep—the maximum of its depth just corresponding to the highest, and most abrupt side of the hillock, and showing there the obvious silt of a sudden upheaval. No doubt, also, can exist as to the lake being the center of this volcanic explosion, which has made naked, probably, the bottom of the old river. The limpidity of this stream seems certified by the purity of its sandy deposits. Then, between that and the muddy river of modern times, what distance! One may dream on the thousands of years of their separation!

Let us now go to Marsh Island, better known under the name of Petite Anse, and upheaved by a similar volcanic agency, but a great deal more powerful. Here, also, the old crater has become an inexhaustible lake. One would see here the bottom of a large funnel, detruncated and open to the north, the very door of its eruption, where I have found the rapilli, or scoræ, already spoken of. On the opposite side corresponding to the highest strata of the upheaval, shows above the lake, and lifted up from the volcanic depth, a large bulk of clay, as red as the most colored of the Red River valley, but nearly covered by the falling of blue and sandy superincumbent strata.

When walking on the crater's edge, and surrounding hills, the height of which seemed to reach about 160 feet, I remarked among pale and reddish sands a quartzose bed, eight or ten inches thick, and cutting the earthy strata under a declivity of twenty five degrees. There I found some hard stones, susceptible of being worked by jewelers. On the other side of the hills, among white, sandy strata, like those that we will see at Cote Blanche, I met with oxide of iron, one soil tooth, and rolled pebbles of compound formation, testifying to a recent geological origin.

Going down toward the southeast, through undulations of these volcanic upheavals, I reached the salt springs, which are seldom absent among such phenomena. These springs, in spite of the weakness of their brine, have produced, before stated, great quantities of salt during the year 1812, but at an immense cost of fuel and boilers; and since the cheap importation of foreign salt, they have been given up. We must not wonder, as regards the vicinity of such rings to the volcano of Petite Anse; for, when the eruption took place, it was at the seashore, if not from the bottom of the sea. In this case, the volcanic filer, communicating through a subterranean fissure, with the great reservoir of salt water, manufactured, also, and without fuel, immense bulks of salt, which, fused in the surrounding soil by successive eruptions, is now, little by little, dried by rains to the surface, in shape of local springs.

Finally, the presence of this saline agency explains the character of the rapilli and scoræ of the volcanic fusion among compounds, where calcareous and alkaline elements prevail. I have discovered them, at a depth of about three feet, under the blue clay stratum which constitutes the low grounds around Petite Anse. Consequently we have there, at three feet under the actual ground, a valuable testimony of the last eruption. As regards the marine or fluvial deposits of the superincumbent soil, how many years, how many centuries, have been intended for giving it this thickness of three feet above the last volcanic eruption? To answer the question is not easy at all, in the actual state of Louisiana geology. The elements of the problem are found, and we may wait for its solution.

As to the volcano itself of Petite Anse, the conclusion seems obvious. A recent specimen of such phenomena, it stands before us the most reliable witness of volcanic agency in the formation of Lower Louisiana.

6.—PROGRESS AND RESOURCES OF TEXAS.

In answer to inquiries as to the ability of the State of Texas to satisfy land claims donated by her for railroad purposes, Mr. J. R. Sprague has written a long and interesting letter, which we find in the *New York Day Book*. That part of it which relates to railroads and land statistics of the State we omit, as unimportant to our readers—merely remarking, there is no question as to the sufficiency of the public domain to satisfy all claims present and likely to arise for sums donated for the aid of railroads authorized by law. In regard to the character of those lands, Mr. Sprague says :

It has been supposed by persons not acquainted with the State of Texas that a large portion of her territory is a desert or barren plain, unfit for cultivation, and that a considerable portion of the land which would inure to railroad companies is worthless. This idea is not well founded, and only provokes a smile from one who is familiar with the State; for it is a well-established fact that there is not to be found within the limits of the United States an area of equal extent with Texas where the soil is so universally good. These apprehensions arise mainly from the fact that there is a large scope of country about three hundred miles in length from north to south, and an average width of about 100 miles, known as the Llano Estacado, or Staked Plain. This section of the country lies in the northwestern part of the State, and embraces about 27,000 square miles and, being mostly destitute of timber and water, is supposed to be of no value for agricultural purposes, although it produces a good crop of wheat, and water is found in some places. The government of the United States has made attempts to procure water on the Llano Estacado by Artesian wells, but whether the experiment will succeed is still in doubt, although geologists and others confidently believe an abundant supply of water will be obtained. Should this be the result, the Staked Plain will be profitably occupied as a grazing country for extensive herds of cattle.

But, allowing the Llano Estacado to be a sterile waste, and entirely useless, it would only reduce about 10 per cent. of the whole territory, or about 27,000,000 acres, when added to the 119,089,214 acres admitted as valid claims to be satisfied, and we still have left 29,505,346 acres of productive soil belonging to the State.

The resources of Texas are not well understood by persons whose interests have not led them to inquire, and especially in the northern States, except to a few enterprising merchants in the commercial cities of New York and Boston. Her soil and climate are diversified, producing almost every variety of grain, fruit and vegetable grown North and South—all the cereal grains, the orange, almond, fig, apple, pear, &c. As a wheat-producing country she has no superior east of California, the average yield being about 25 and often 40 bushels per acre, weighing from 65 to 70 pounds per bushel. I have seen, while passing through the northern counties—Colin, Grayson, and Fannin—whole crops of wheat that I was informed would weigh 72 pounds to the bushel, and I have no reason to doubt it. The average yield of most wheat-growing States of the North is about 15 to 18 bushels per acre, and the standard weight of 60 pounds is not generally attained, while the soil of Texas will produce one third more per acre, and holds at least 15 per cent. advantage in weight.

Northern Texas is well adapted for raising wheat, and harvesting is done in May, and the day is near at hand when she will export flour of superior quality much earlier than other States. As a grazing country she ranks among the first. It has been ascertained that the cost of raising a cow three years old is \$60 in New York and New England, and in the Western States, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, &c., it costs to raise a three-year-old bullock about \$15, while in Texas the actual cost of raising a three-year-old steer to the large stock-raiser will not exceed fifty cents. Sheep thrive remarkably well, and wool-growing will soon be one of the great staples of Texas. She is already one of the principal cotton-growing States, and is beginning to attract the attention of the whole commercial and manufacturing world interested in that important staple.

She is a part of the great highway from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and when her system of railroads is carried out, will be the distributing depot for the products of all countries that pass over our continent. And resting, as she does, several hundred miles on the Gulf of Mexico, railroads must and will be relieved of their heavy burdens by their seeking marine transportation at her seaports—whether they consist of the rich products of China, or the heavy metals from the mines of Mexico. And here I will add, that sooner or later the seaports of Texas will receive the products of northern Mexico for distribution; or we have practical evidence that even now, without railroads but with pack mules, the article of lead can be delivered from the mines of northern Mexico, through Monterey, at Corpus Christi, on the coast of Texas, at less than two cents per pound freight. The lumber, from her vast pineries in the East, will afford profitable employment for the railroads, in carrying it to supply the demands in the West; and her grain-growing North will send its products to the coast, and receive in exchange the sugar from her own soil.

Texas is in her infancy, but she is growing in moral, physical, and political strength, and will soon stand a giant State in the South. Her population is rapidly increasing, and the inhabitants alive to the importance of early development of her resources, and ere long her influence will be felt in every department of agriculture, manufactures, and mechanics; and although she was conceived in anarchy, and born in a rebellious struggle for political freedom, her moral and intellectual powers are subjects of admiration. So will she continue under her present liberal views of education. Her educational fund is \$2,000,000, 3,000,000 acres of land, and ten per cent. of the revenue of the State. The last legislature made a liberal appropriation for the endowment of a State University, of the first class, and, if I am informed aright, this institution will be an improvement, if possible, upon the model schools of learning, in both the Old and New World. The design is to present her youths with a finished education, and during the lecture season, American scholars, of every class—lawyers, doctors, and divines, poets and painters, orators and statesmen, manufacturers, tradesmen, and mechanics—will have free access to her libraries, and without expense share alike the knowledge acquired under her hospitable home.

That Texas will be a manufacturing State is certain, for she is pregnant with material for manufacturing purposes; such as cotton, wool, hides, coal, iron, lead, &c., with unlimited water-power to propel machinery. The climate will allow of white labor, and I think I may venture the assertion, that in a few years San Antonio, Guadalupe, Blanco, and San Marcos rivers will drive machinery rivaling the spindles of New-England—and why? Because the manufacturing capitalist will discover that Texas will be a more profitable theatre for his operations. It costs less to live, and operatives of the North will seek employment where their labor is better remunerated, and where they can enjoy the advantage of a mild and healthy climate, and where they can occupy a social position equal with the merchant prince or sovereign planter. In Texas the laborer is worthy of his hire, and in social position he stands upon his moral worth, and is not a menial, like his class or hired "help" in Massachusetts. Nor is there a pauper in the State. The luxuries of life are at his command—wild game of all kinds in abundance; the brook trout in her mountain streams, and oysters in her bays equal in quality to the best Saddle Rock oysters in New-York. The grape grows spontaneously, and a superior quality of wine may be had for the simple cost of manufacturing.

Though Texas is an infant State, she possesses the elements to sustain an Empire—nay, she is an empire within herself. She has capacity to yield more sales of cotton than is now produced in all the cotton-growing States of the Union. She can supply the whole South with first quality of flour one month earlier than any other grain-producing section. Her natural pastures are extensive enough to supply the inhabitants of every city in the United States with superior quality of beef at an actual cost of raising less than one cent per pound. Her streams can furnish water power for all kinds of hydraulic purposes to an indefinite extent. Her thousands of hills and fertile valleys are covered with herds of horses, cattle and sheep, while the herdsman surveys his flock grazing with joy and satisfaction. Her mountains, hills, valleys, plains and streams, form landscape scenery surpassingly picturesque and beautiful; and

the traveller, while pursuing his journey from hill to hill, or mountain to mountain, is enchanted with the ever-changing scene, as a child with the transposing powers of the kaleidoscope.

The *Houston Telegraph* gives the following from the *Texas Almanac* :

The wealthiest counties in the State, by the late assessment, are Harrison, with 7,746 negroes, and taxable property to the amount of \$7,358,196; Washington, with 6,148 negroes, and taxable property amounting to \$6,182,912; and Brazoria, with 4,819 negroes, and taxable property amounting to \$4,705,948. Besides these, Bexar and Galveston both have over four millions, and Harris, Fayette, Fort Bend, Cass, Austin, Gonzales, Grimes, Walker, and Travis, over three millions. The county having the smallest amount of taxable property is Erath, with only \$189,827. Besides this, Comanche, Jack, Kerr, and Young, have each less than two hundred thousand. The most populous county is Harrison, with over fourteen thousand inhabitants, and the least populous is Uvalde, with only one hundred and seven.

The most populous city is Galveston, with 9,949 inhabitants; the next is San Antonio, with 5,378; and next to that is Houston, with 4,815. The least populous incorporated town is New Salem, Rusk county, with only 94 people, 25 of whom are negroes, and only 20 votes. Athens, Augusta, Beaumont and Weatherfield have neither of them 200 inhabitants. Besides these, there are 23 cities and towns having less than 500 inhabitants; 20 towns with between 500 and 1,000; 5 between 1,000 and 2,000, viz.: Marshall, Victoria, Gonzales, New Braunfels, and Paris; one between 2,000 and 3,000, viz.: Austin; and between 3,000 and 4,000, none.

To the above the *Intelligencer*, published at Austin, adds the following under appropriate headings. We admit that Texas is a great State, and that her future will be high and bright. But to the extract:

Like all other individuals who ever had the good or ill fortune to have been known outside of Texas, the editor, through the past year, has had thousands of inquiries as to the health, water, timber, land, game, fish, minerals, roads, railroads, schools, colleges, religion, piety, law, physic, manufactories, newspapers, girls, boys, bachelors, grasshoppers, and all else which for good or ill affects the country. We have generally answered by sending a single number of the *Intelligencer*, knowing that one would give more information than a letter which few could decipher, and to write which, would not pay.—But the year is now drawing to a close, the census has been taken, an election has been held, all the Baptist Associations, Methodist Conferences, Presbyteries, and Episcopal Conventions have held their usual assemblies; De Cordova's lectures, Richardson's almanac, the public printer pamphlet, Pressler's new map, Sayle's Practice, and the legislative journals have been published; there has also been a perfect stream of railroad literature, and marvellous accounts of Indian fights. Without any of these before us, we hash up from memory, for our distant correspondents, a few Texas facts:

1. THE SPIRITUAL WORLD is well to do. The Methodist, Baptist, Cumberland Presbyterian, Christian, and other revival churches, have had great gatherings. The Episcopalians and Catholics are marching steadily along; the former chose a Yankee Bishop who would not come. The colleges and schools of all the churches are doing well; and there is yet room for the operations of the mightiest men. Many new ministers have come into the field; a few have died, but more have been expelled. The devil is certainly alarmed—and hence he has vented his malice the last year in the shape of over a hundred murders and attempts to murder, as many thefts, and a good deal of "marking and branding" of cattle. Few, however, have been hanged—but a considerable number have taken up their residences at Huntsville, and engaged in manufacturing and other handicraft business.

2. EDUCATION has made remarkable progress for a new country. The colleges and high schools at all the principal towns are making rapid progress. Many superior men are engaged in instructing; and many of the over-crowded professional men are preparing to engage in the business. The blind and mutes are instructed at the public expense, as are the children of the poor. The university fund is ample, but the institution may not be located for years.

3. THE CENSUS shows about half a million of souls, over two thirds of whom are

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white, and one seventh voters. The increase is everywhere, but more rapid in the upland districts than upon the coast. The greatest wealth is distributed in large counties in the respective sections. The same population rarely has so much taxable wealth, though a great deal of land is owned by non-residents. The wealth consists not alone in lands, negroes, and city property, but there is a vast amount of stock and rolling wagons.

4. The CROPS have been an average. Wheat enough for the whole State, could it be distributed; corn at the average of 50 cents per bushel; cotton, 250,000 bales or more; pecans, \$300,000 worth exported, and more consumed at home; and with the acorn crop pork and cattle have grown fat. The former sells at an average of five, the latter at three cents per pound.

5. LAND.—Texas has 250,000 square miles, with good land enough to subsist five million of people. It would be invidious to say where the best is.

6. THE HEALTH cannot be said ever to be disturbed except by the epidemics in our coast cities. Of course there are occasional fevers in some sections, and people do die as elsewhere; but as a whole no part of the world compares with Texas for health.

7. WAGON ROADS are wanting nowhere in dry weather; in wet weather jack screws are sometimes necessary. Of railroads 150 miles have been built—others are in progress, and the country is alive to the necessity of them. The State aid has been reasonably liberal.

8. EMPLOYMENT.—No profession but the law can be said to be overdone. The history of the profession here is as everywhere else; some get rich, others do well, and a large number vegetate. As to medicine, the country is rather too healthy for doctors, though many do well. Preachers who can support themselves, and lend money occasionally, are in great demand. A few are well paid; and many more have claims to the rewards of the righteous. Teachers do well, the price of tuition being high.

9. POLITICS AND CHANCES FOR OFFICE.—It don't pay in Texas except to the lucky few. Of all countries it is most fatal to humbuggery and mere charlatanism. The country is entirely too broad for strides of short-legged men. Once in a while such men get into office, but there is not enough of reverence in the masses to worship the donkey in the lion's skin. Altogether it is a poor country for "splurging," and bad for political vaulting.

10. AS A MARRYING COUNTRY none is better. Ladies keep their own property, and so far wear the breeches.—Men therefore care more for beauty and solid qualities than wealth. Most ladies marry young; and many good fellows are without wives. A very large number have been united the last year.

11. AS TO THE INQUIRIES ABOUT WOOD, WATER, DROUGHTS, GRASSHOPPERS, and such nonsense, we have no answers to give. No one ever freezes or wants wood to make the pot boil, or water to rinse the clothes. It rains and pours, and don't rain as elsewhere.

In a word, Texas is a great country, has great people, and is destined to be the Empire State of the Union. But Texas, like all other places, has croakers.

7.—MEXICO—ITS WEALTH, SOIL, CITIES, POPULATION, ETC.

Some time since Senor Tojada published a series of articles upon the condition of Mexico, giving a very good idea of its natural wealth, the quality of its soil, the richness of its mines, the size of its cities, etc. It has command of a large ocean front, with numerous gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which furnish excellent harbors. There are some twelve or fifteen rivers, the longest of which is the Rio Bravo del Norte, all of which are navigable to a certain distance; in most cases, however, very short. A good many of these and of the lesser streams of the country would furnish an abundance of water-power which now runs to waste. The more southerly portions of the country are almost uniformly fertile. Sterility is impressed chiefly on the northern plains and the mountainous regions. A great deal of the finest soil of Mexico is yet unreclaimed. It abounds in the most valuable timber trees, and a growth which affords rich resins and many of the prized gums of commerce and medicinal extracts. Of its mineral wealth, not a word need be said. There is scarcely a known metal which is not found in its mines.

Table of the Capital Cities of Each State and Territory, the Number of Inhabitants of Each, and the Distance from the City of Mexico.

	No. of Inhabitants.	Dist. from Mexico.		No. of Inhabitants.	Dist. from Mexico.
Agua Calientes.....	20,000	140	Ures.....	6,000	580
San Cristobal.....	7,049	289	San Juan Baptista.....	5,500	239
Chihuahua.....	12,004	333	Ciudad Victoria.....	4,021	190
Saltillo (a) Leon Vleoria,	8,105	200	Vera Cruz.....	9,047	80
Buena Vista.....	14,000	200	Merida.....	23,475	300
Guadalupe.....	26,921	94	Zacatecas.....	15,427	120
Tixtla (Ciudad Guerrero)	6,501	70	Mexico.....	186,000	..
Guadalupe.....	68,000	161	Tlaxcala.....	2,402	20
Toluca.....	12,000	16	Colima.....	31,774	170
Morelia.....	22,000	60	La Paz.....	1,244	410
Monterrey.....	17,309	234	Minatitlan.....	839	100
Oajaca.....	25,000	108	Villa del Carmen.....	3,088	300
Puebla.....	70,000	28	San Luis de la Paz.....	4,411	90
Queretaro.....	27,486	87			
San Luis Potosi.....	19,578	114			
Oahuacan.....	9,645	403	Total no. of inhabitants, 690,044		

There were, at the latest examination of the departments, but 9,234 foreigners residing in the country, of which there were 5,141 old Spaniards, 2,048 Frenchmen, 615 Englishmen, 581 Germans, 444 Americans, and of other nations 405.

The agricultural wealth is estimated at \$260,000,000, and the yield of the mines at \$24,000,000 annually. The value of domestic manufactures is set down at \$90,000,000. There are forty-six cotton and eight woollen manufactories, located chiefly in the middle States of the Republic. About forty thousand pounds of silk are made in silkeries at the capital, and in Puebla and Guadalupe.

Money lending, especially in the capital, is done extensively, about ten millions of capital being employed in the business.

It is not known now, such is the anarchy which prevails, what the present annual revenue is, but in 1854 it was \$15,000,000. The annual expenditure is about \$25,000,000. The national debt is about \$120,000,000. In 1855, the army was composed of 11,700 men, and of this number there were no less than 5,800 officers.

The property of the church is supposed to be between two hundred and fifty and three hundred millions of dollars. At the capital, the clergy own more than half the buildings, and the whole are valued at \$80,000,000. Adding the rents of landed property to all other sources, and his estimate is that the total income of the Church, annually, is \$80,000,000.

S.—A TEXAN PIONEER.

The well-known agricultural writer, Thomas Affleck, writes as follows, from Brenham, Texas, in regard to one of the pioneers of that State :

He first visited Texas in March, 1838 ; travelled west as far as San Antonio ; was pleased with the country ; purchased a land certificate for one league and labor (about 4,600 acres), located two thirds on the Leone and one third on the Cibola (which land he still owns), returned to his then home in Tennessee in the latter part of May. In February, 1839, returned to Texas, bringing with him an old negro man, of fifty years, his wife, about forty-five, and a boy twelve years old ; purchased a small tract of land near Victoria ; fenced in, broke and planted ten acres in corn by the 10th May, which yielded sufficient for his family consumption the year following. In June he returned to Tennessee for his family, hiring a white man to take care of his negroes and build some cabins. Wound up his affairs in Tennessee, and arrived with his family at his new home near Victoria on the 4th of April, 1840. Remained there during the years 1840, '41, and '42 ; during which time the Indians and Mexicans were very troublesome ; many persons were killed, and much property stolen. During these troublesome times he barely made a support for his family, and, times continuing bad and prospects gloomy, he determined, in the latter part of 1842, to remove farther east, until he could find security for his family. But the difficulty was, he owed debts and had no money to pay them with, nor a wagon and teams sufficient to remove his family. Providence, however, favored the country with a heavy pecan mast, or crop of

nuts. My informant made the most of the opportunity thus afforded him of getting out of his difficulty, and went industriously to work, with the few negroes that he had and his four oldest sons, the oldest of whom had seen eleven years, and from the time the pecans began to fall until about the 15th December, they picked and shipped to New Orleans enough to net him \$400! With this sum he paid his debts and purchased a wagon, and in January, 1843, left Victoria with his all, for what was then called the white settlements.

Here, I may remark, by the way, that the tract of land he then occupied adjoining Victoria, then on the very frontier, and exposed to the attacks of Indians and Mexicans, is now the residence of Col. Phillips, and covered with a thrifty orchard of fruit trees furnished from my nurseries in Mississippi, and which have already borne fine crops, especially of pears. So much for the progressiveness of this fine State.

But to return to our pioneer. He reached the county of Fayette, at a point six miles from his present home, on the 22d February, 1843; rented land, and commenced operations on a very small scale. His family then consisted of a wife, six children, and six negroes, the latter comprising an old man and an old woman, a boy of sixteen, and three girls under ten years of age. He had forty-eight head of cattle and two Spanish ponies, the best of which last two could not have been cashed at ten dollars! He had \$17 25 in money, all told! and had his provisions for the year to buy. His entire property, including negroes, could not, if sold, have realized \$2,500; and he has not received a dollar since that time, except what he has made by stock-raising and planting. He remained two years upon the place he first rented. The second year's crop brought him in \$400 over all expenses, which sum was appropriated to the first payment of \$1,600, the price of 469 acres of land, where he now resides. The balance, \$1,200, was paid during the next two years. His first crop made on the place was in 1845. His crops of cotton have averaged since that time (referring to his books) 1,400 pounds of seed cotton per acre—whether including or exclusive of the last two I do not remember, but think they are included. He now owns, in his home tract, 2,200 acres of prime land; has over 100 head of horses and mules, many of them more than half American stock; a fine Kentucky jack, an equally fine stallion, about 200 head of cattle, with other property unnecessary to name, and having more due him by good men than he owes; and owns now thirty negroes, twenty of whom are over twelve years of age. His family now consists of nine children, six of whom are grown, and are well educated; the expense of their education being no trifle, as much of the time they were boarded off at school. Besides this, the grown ones have had money at different times, amounting to several thousand dollars, and at this time his property in that county is estimated at not less than \$50,000; all of which has been made since 1845 by planting and stock raising. For the 2,200 acres comprising his homestead he was recently offered \$22,000, but wisely concluded that, if it was worth that sum to any one else, it was worth it to him.

9.—THE SOUTH AND THE UNION.

Col. A. P. Calhoun, eldest son of the late John C. Calhoun, proves himself true to his illustrious lineage, in an address he has recently delivered before the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina, as the following extract from it will show:

In fact, open the volume it will take to contain the catalogue of aggressions against us, and still the remedy remains the same—save the glorious Union! My fellow-citizens, let us begin to use the word—let us catch a slight from our enemies. Let us, too, go for Union—the union of the South, the union of part of the South, the union of one State, if need be, for the sake of the South. * * * *
On the one side is a great section preyed upon, plundered by oppressive laws, and although rich in agricultural capacity beyond any other people, at every point is she unduly depressed, because the powers of government live upon her, and force her; by insidious laws, to support, to give more for nearly everything she buys, that another section, of adverse interests, and unfriendly sentiments against her, shall prosper at her expense. This hostile division has nursed its hate, until without any other motive than jealousy, it is ready to

woe and desolation lay us waste, rather than we shall peaceably retain our property. Now the question is, shall we submit, in the vain hope of a reaction the tide of fanaticism and love of power, or shall we resist, before we reach a worse point of degradation! At this point come in words that mean things. It is prudent and expedient to wait until all are ready, we are advised. A common interest prevails, and if one sovereignty is informed and ready, it is inexpedient for her to advance, because if she does, some of the others may feel hurt, and refuse to co-operate. In meekness we have waited. As long as the Trojan war, ten long years, have we waited, since our own loved State, for expediency sake, bade us do so. She wished us to co-operate for the sake of effectual deliverance from tyranny, and was led to believe we would soon have issues that would whirl the whole South into our ranks.

We are now awakening to the momentous truth, that, what is every State's duty, separately, becomes conveniently shifted, alternately from one to another, still, like the common adage, that what is everybody's is no one's business, we have the prospect before us of waiting for an impracticable remedy, to redress grievances that will not only grind our agriculture, but obliterate the planting interests of the South from existence. We ask if the statement is not a fair one, and, if so, what consideration rises to the magnitude that the aspect presents to the consideration of the farmers and planters of South Carolina, and where do all other issues sink to, in comparison with this one? Will any one dare, in the face of the stupendous power that has gathered abroad, the hostile feelings in warring States, the treachery at home against us, the growing and immense strength exhibited in recent elections, to persist in councils that postpone indefinitely all action, but introduces perpetually into our midst increasing elements of weakness, and fortifies the enemy in the certain assurance that we will ultimately fall an easy prey, if we hug the delusion any longer? You men who cultivate the soil, constitute the South. You feed, clothe, and support all the rest, few, comparatively, as they are. When we speak of the South, or your liveries do so, you, alone, are alluded to. Now, public opinion must either control or be controlled. If you feel that the central agency at Washington can serve you, we ask where is your power there? None. Then we must look to a union of the South. Where is the evidence you can consolidate it to the point of joint action? None. The *National Union* has proven, so far, *stronger than the South*. The one has rewards and captivating offices to offer—receives the immense treasures extorted insidiously from our portion, the South, to be disbursed among her enemies, and her deserters, whose only hope to retain their ill-gotten power, is to strengthen the central government to the unwieldy proportions of an absorbing despotism, and to merge the imperial sovereignty of the States into a grinding acquiescence to every extortion and usurpation of their rights, which, in range to say, they succeed in effecting, by stirring up discord among the plundered States, to a sufficient extent to prevent their *united or separate action*.

10.—FUNCTIONS OF THE SLAVE.

We agree in the views of a contemporary that the true functions of the slave are menial, or are to be exercised in the fields. He says:

It is time the people of the South should look into the matter with an eye single to their interest and institutions; it is time the mechanics themselves should think of elevating the standard of mechanic arts, and refuse to teach negroes trades; it is time public sentiment should be awakened to the enormity of the wrong thus imposed upon mechanical genius by such a policy; it is time that a reform should be commenced in this matter, and it is time we should begin to understand the ruinous consequence to the institution of slavery which must result in the persistent policy of learning negroes mechanical trades.

If we ever expect to be independent of the North, it is absolutely necessary that we should elevate the standard of the mechanic arts; and to do this, negro competition and negro ascendancy must be prohibited, and white talent employed in promoting that very much wished-for desideratum. We believe that the institution of slavery is morally and divinely right; we believe that the condition of the negro is elevated to a degree, by being held in bondage and

slavery, which he never could attain in his native wilds, under any circumstances whatever; and for his good and the interest of our people, we would see the institution of slavery perpetuated to the last day and generation, and for that reason we would urge the necessity of instituting every precaution to sustain it.

Thus, in placing the negro in competition with white mechanics—a superior intellectual power—we drag the latter down to a level with the former, and the consequence is, to some extent, and we are sorry to say it, regarded by some as being no better than the former. This is well calculated to breed a discontent and hatred on the part of the white mechanic, and make him an enemy to an institution which should be the means of promoting the interests of the very pursuit in which he is engaged. This policy also creates a spirit of antagonism between the rich and poor, from the fact that the rich thus array capital against labor—elevate the negro at the expense of the poor white mechanic.

11.—UNITED STATES NAVY.

Table showing the number of Vessels of each class belonging to the Navy, with the total number of guns, and number of seamen employed each year, since 1836.

	Ships-of-the-Line.	Razees.	Frigates.	Sloops-of-War.	Brigs-of-War.	Schooners.	Steamers.	Store Vessels.	Bomb Vessels.	Exploring Vessels.	Total of all classes.	Total No. of guns.	No. of Seamen enlisted.
1836....	11	1	16	15	—	8	—	—	—	4	65	1,069	3,804
1837....	11	1	16	14	2	7	—	—	—	—	51	1,082	5,201
1838....	11	1	16	14	2	7	—	—	—	—	51	1,082	3,051
1839....	11	2	16	17	1	5	1	—	—	—	53	2,022	6,782
1840....	11	1	16	21	4	8	2	1	—	—	64	2,106	7,073
1841....	11	1	16	21	4	9	2	1	—	—	65	2,106	7,419
1842....	11	1	16	21	4	9	4	3	—	—	69	2,044	9,784
1843....	11	1	15	18	8	9	6	3	—	—	71	2,022	10,321
1844....	10	1	15	22	7	9	5	5	—	—	74	2,164	10,000
1845....	10	1	14	23	8	8	8	4	—	—	76	2,400	7,500
1846....	11	1	14	23	8	8	7	5	—	—	77	2,745	7,500
1847....	11	1	14	22	5	9	11	6	—	—	81	2,398	7,500
1848....	11	1	14	22	6	12	15	4	4	—	92	2,401	7,500
1849....	11	1	14	22	5	5	14	6	—	—	78	2,380	7,500
1850....	11	1	14	22	4	5	14	6	—	—	77	2,770	7,500
1851....	11	1	14	21	4	3	11	5	—	—	75	2,338	7,500
1852....	11	1	14	21	4	3	16	5	—	—	75	2,346	7,500
1853....	11	1	13	21	4	4	16	5	—	—	75	2,320	7,500
1854....	10	1	12	20	4	1	11	7	2	—	72	2,115	7,500
1855....	10	1	12	20	4	1	21	7	2	—	78	2,335	7,500
1856....	10	1	12	19	3	1	22	6	2	—	76	2,370	7,500
1857....	10	1	12	17	3	1	22	5	—	—	73	2,332	—
1858....	10	—	10	21	3	1	25	3	5	—	78	2,231	—

In 1843 the Java was broken up.

In 1844 the Washington was broken up.

In 1845 the Hudson was broken up.

Since 1845 the number of seamen has been limited by law to 7,500.

UNITED STATES NAVY.

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Table showing the number of Captains, Commanders, Lieutenants, Masters in the line of promotion, passed and other Midshipmen and Seamen, in the United States Navy, for each year from 1816 to 1858 inclusive; also the Naval expenditure for each year, and the total tonnage of the United States for each year.

Years.	Captains.	Commanders.	Lieutenants.	Masters in the line of Promotion.	Passed and other Midshipmen.	Seamen.	Total expenditures for the Navy and Marine Corps.	Total Tonnage of the United States, Enrolled, Licensed and Registered.
1816	32	18	150	None.	495	Unkn'n.	\$3,008,278	1,372,219
1817	31	22	157	"	416	"	5,514,598	1,399,911
1818	34	26	182	"	404	"	2,953,095	1,225,184
1819	35	23	213	"	362	"	3,847,040	1,250,752
1820	34	22	202	"	350	"	4,387,990	1,280,106
1821	32	21	163	"	306	"	2,319,343	1,299,959
1822	31	31	166	"	336	"	2,224,249	1,334,670
1823	30	31	183	"	356	"	2,503,700	1,336,566
1824	29	30	172	"	335	"	2,904,581	1,389,163
1825	24	30	228	"	304	"	3,049,087	1,423,111
1826	22	29	209	"	341	"	4,218,902	1,531,190
1827	31	27	228	"	374	"	4,261,878	1,620,605
1828	33	29	245	"	392	"	3,918,783	1,741,392
1829	31	29	263	"	458	"	3,988,613	1,960,798
1830	31	33	258	"	476	"	3,239,429	1,191,776
1831	37	34	255	"	431	"	3,856,183	1,276,846
1832	40	33	259	"	419	"	4,947,718	1,439,450
1833	37	41	279	"	450	"	4,274,184	1,606,149
1834	37	41	259	"	450	"	4,613,657	1,758,907
1835	37	41	257	"	450	3,627	4,299,836	1,824,940
1836	38	40	257	"	450	3,804	6,252,145	1,882,102
1837	40	40	278	"	450	5,201	7,891,364	1,896,685
1838	50	49	276	"	448	6,051	6,839,867	1,991,639
1839	62	55	295	"	445	6,932	6,787,563	2,066,478
1840	55	55	290	"	452	7,072	6,124,456	2,180,764
1841	55	55	288	"	487	7,419	6,970,756	2,130,744
1842	68	96	328	"	563	6,784	7,970,765	2,092,390
1843	67	94	324	"	545	10,521	2,158,603	2,158,603
1844	67	96	324	"	563	10,000	10,169,709	2,280,095
1845	65	96	327	"	474	7,500	6,476,491	2,516,999
1846	67	97	326	"	445	7,500	6,350,790	2,562,084
1847	64	97	324	"	446	7,500	7,931,633	2,839,046
1848	67	97	327	"	436	7,500	9,406,737	3,154,042
1849	68	97	327	"	451	7,500	10,898,312	3,334,015
1850	68	97	327	"	420	7,500	7,923,323	3,635,454
1851	68	97	327	"	404	7,500	8,987,718	3,772,440
1852	68	97	325	12	407	7,500	8,928,236	4,138,441
1853	68	97	327	14	394	7,500	10,811,740	4,407,010
1854	68	97	326	14	381	7,500	10,768,192	4,802,903
1855	68	97	326	14	381	7,500	13,281,341	5,212,061
1856	68	97	326	18	171	7,500	14,077,047	4,871,652
1857	64	96	311	24	290	—	—	—
1858	*76	106†	319	1	243	—	—	—
1859	*81	116†	339	—	—	—	—	—

* Only 68 allowed. Increase owing to restorations from the reserve list. No promotions until the number is reduced.

† Only 97 allowed. Increase owing to restorations from the reserve list. No promotions until the number is reduced.

In 1850 there was a reserve list of 31 captains, 33 commanders, and 64 lieutenants.

In 1857 there was a reserve list of 30 captains, 30 commanders, and 63 lieutenants.

In 1858 there was a reserve list of 25 captains, 20 commanders, and 64 lieutenants.

In 1859 there was a reserve list of 18 captains, 17 commanders, and 36 lieutenants.

POPULATION OF NEW-ORLEANS.

12.—POPULATION OF NEW-ORLEANS.

quite remarkable that, with the large increase of business and the very prosperity of New-Orleans, its population in the last few years has not creasing. In fact, since 1856, the increase has only been 8,000. While side this fact is accounted for, by the course which has been pursued foreigners, by the party in power in the city, practically excluding them, other side the explanation is given as follows :

ce the first day of May, 1853, the city has been visited by four epidemics, i have carried off not less than 35,000 persons, and, together with the great on our population by the number of persons who have emigrated to Cali-a, Texas, Nicaragua and Tehuantepec (not less than 10,000) and those who removed their families to the neighboring villages on our seaboard and on railroads connecting with the city, will readily account for the small increase he population of this district since that time. It is a well-known fact that the uent epidemics have caused a falling off of foreign emigration to this city.

POPULATION BY CITY CENSUS, 1849.

	Voters.	White people.	Slaves.	White males be- tween 18 and 45.	Free negroes.	Total population.	Grand Total.
First District.....	1,930	15,751	1,394	3,280	208	17,353	
Second ".....	2,705	13,421	1,396	3,628	106	14,923	
Third ".....	3,050	20,495	2,900	6,310	852	24,247	
	7,685	49,667	5,690	13,227	1,166	66,523	56,523
Fourth ".....	1,313	8,152	1,192	2,716	1,007	10,351	
Fifth ".....	2,003	13,662	1,785	4,318	1,740	17,187	
Sixth ".....	1,315	7,828	1,446	1,346	618	10,092	
	4,631	29,642	4,423	8,380	3,565	37,630	37,630
Seventh ".....	978	7,498	1,013	1,951	2,467	10,978	
Eighth ".....	1,015	7,101	292	2,068	626	8,019	
Ninth ".....	576	4,577	469	1,519	128	5,174	
	2,569	19,176	1,774	5,538	3,221	24,171	24,171
Tenth ".....	2,347	17,712	1,857	4,226	324	19,953	19,953
Total.....							138,277

MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS.

First District.....	7,685	49,667	5,690	13,227	1,166	66,523
Second ".....	4,631	29,642	4,423	8,380	3,565	37,630
Third ".....	2,569	19,176	1,774	5,538	3,221	24,171
Fourth ".....	2,347	17,712	1,857	4,226	324	19,953
Total.....	17,232	116,237	13,774	31,371	8,376	138,277

GERARD STITH, M

13.—RAILROADS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

On June 30, 1857, there were 8,942 miles of railroads opened and in use in Great Britain, employing in all 109,660 persons; and 3,193 miles of unopened railroads, employing 44,087 persons. In 1856, the number of passengers conveyed, was 129,347,592; number of persons killed, 281; and injured by accidents, 394. In the half year ending June 30, 1856, the total number of passengers in England and Wales, was 49,179,847; and the total number of miles travelled, 685,316,097, or upward of 80 miles on an average for each inhabitant. In Scotland, 5,608,232 passengers, and 68,890,094 miles travelled, or 20 miles for each inhabitant. In Ireland, 3,436,051 passengers, and 46,059,536 miles travelled, or about 7 miles for each inhabitant.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

THE Hon. Charles Gayarre is preparing a fourth and concluding volume of his great work, the *History of Louisiana*, which will bring down the material to 1820, the period of the Florida cession. To come any nearer to present times would involve the necessity of references to living characters, by no means a pleasant task, nor one in which an actor could be considered always an impartial witness.

Mr. Gayarre is one of the highest toned and most truly estimable descendants of that old regime of Louisiana, which, under Spain and under France, controlled its destinies for a century; and among his ancestors are men whom history will not let die.

We are rejoiced that he will complete this historical work, which has been commended by Bancroft, by Prescott and Benton, and urge upon the whole Southwest, whose interests are as much embraced in it as those of Louisiana, to give it their encouragement. The volumes already published can be had at the bookstore of J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans. Let every family in Louisiana, at least, be provided with a copy.

The work by George Fitzhugh, entitled, *Cannibals All*, which is "a mine of thought and a magazine of facts," in the language of one of our friends, upon the slavery question and the social condition of the South, will soon reach New-Orleans, and can be had from J. C. Morgan. The philosophy of the work is more closely analytical than that of "*Sociology of the South*," from the same pen, and it contains far more

proofs and illustrations. We consider Mr. Fitzhugh, who is well known to our readers by the able series of papers he is contributing to the Review, as one of the truest philosophers of the age, but like all other philosophers, a little fond of paradoxes, a little inclined to run a theory into extremes, and a little impractical. Still he has learning and genius, and we better like even the excesses of his conservatism, than the excesses of agrarian democracy, and of the preachers of "liberty, equality, and fraternity."

An intelligent friend in Louisiana asks us the following question:

"What would be the result of 'Free trade' to the sugar interests of Louisiana, or what would be the effect produced upon said interests by the establishment of the Free trade system?"

Answer: In the rapidly increasing consumption of sugar, and the limited supply, there is reason to believe that prices would be sustained even under a system of free trade, for under the highest tariffs the lowest prices have been reached; but admitting the reverse, it might be argued that the planter would find more than compensating advantages in the necessary influence of free trade in reducing the onerous taxation which the protective system levies upon the industry and wealth of the country, and which is not represented by the amount that comes into the coffers of the Government. On this point our friend will do well to study the able paper of the Hon. W. Boyce, of South Carolina, in the Review for July, 1858.

Mr. Cralle's letter, in regard to the religious sentiments of the late John C. Calhoun, though conceived in bad taste, and scouting at the opinions which are entertained by so large a portion of the civilized world, contains yet some expressions which we are inclined to reproduce. Our own personal acquaintance with Mr. Calhoun was intimate, and we have it from those upon whose testimony there can be strict reliance, that he expressed to the last "the most implicit confidence in the wisdom and goodness of God." Says Mr. Cralle:

"He made no outward show of the conventional sanctity; but regarded religion as an irresistible and essential property of the inner man, and not the mere outward faculty of the face, knees, hands and tongue. But notwithstanding the identity of his views in this respect, you were misinformed when told that he was a 'Swedenborgian.' That Mr. Calhoun ever adopted these peculiar tenets, is unknown to me. It is true that he was very fond of discussing such subjects in his leisure hours; and often made the philosophical and theological views of the Church the subjects of our evening conversations. Yet I am by no means authorized to say that he ever seriously considered them as articles of religious faith."

The letter of the Hon. James H. Bringham, of Louisiana, on the subject of *African apprentice labor*, of which he sends us a copy, is an able and lucid argument. He says:

"A strong reason for the adoption of this movement, and one which should appeal strongly to the heart of every Southern patriot, is, that it offers the only sure and peaceable means of checking the steady and gradual advance of abolitionism. A relentless war is now being waged by a majority of Northern men upon the institution of slavery. That arch traitor and leader of the fanatical host, William H. Seward, has published his manifesto to the world, wherein he lays down, with fearful distinctness, the programme for his followers. We cannot doubt that he but too truly represents the aims and intentions of the party of which he is the great head, and that his behavior will be faithfully obeyed. And it is equally clear that they aim at nothing less than the complete and total overthrow of slavery in the Southern States. As long as the people of the cotton-growing States will continue to look solely to the free Northern slave States for their supply of labor, and thereby drain the veins of the slave population, so long will they be in part aiders and abettors of our enemies in their schemes for abolishing the South. This draining process upon those States, which has so long been going on, must cease, or, otherwise, in the course of not very many years, the boasts and predictions of the Abolitionists will be partially realized, and slavery indeed wiped out from the States. Being in the laborers from Africa, spread them throughout the South in numbers sufficient to bring into cultivation the millions of acres of rich southern

soil, now lying waste for the want of laborers, and the evil so much to be apprehended will be averted, and the dreaded tide of abolitionism stayed."

"I would say to the numerous friends of the measure, that, owing to its general popularity among the masses in every section of the State, I feel sanguine of its success. It is a mere question of time, and whatever disposition the Legislature may make of the bill at its next session, it can in no way intimidate its advocates, backed as we are by a large majority of our fellow-citizens. What our Constitution does not proscribe, and the welfare of our State demands, it would amount to open-handed injustice to forbid. Whether accomplished sooner or later, I have the satisfaction of knowing that we will have done our duty to the South, and the great affliction of slavery, which has given us the proud pre-eminence we occupy to-day; and that I, as an humble co-worker in this great and important movement, have acted for the common good, and the development of the vast resources of our fertile State."

We are indebted to the author, Colonel Charles E. Hooker, for a copy of his admirable address, delivered in the Legislative Hall of Mississippi, on the occasion of doing honor to the memory of the late soldier, patriot, and statesman, whose memory the South clings to and venerates, *General John A. Quitman*. Long may his example be felt in nerving the Southern heart in the darkest hour to deeds of virtue! Well does Mr. Hooker say:

"Let it be a State Monument: erected by just State pride, discharging a just debt of State gratitude. It may be said there are other of Mississippi's sons, alike entitled to have their memories treasured by the State; the gifted Prentiss, McNutt, Guion, Polkenderfer: may she ever produce sons thus worthy to be remembered. In the language of an elegant eulogist of Quitman, may ours become the 'columnal State,' and each county have its 'pillared marble,' supporting an entablature of moral worth, of intellectual greatness and patriotic devotion, which shall place Mississippi side by side with the oldest of her sister sovereigns, in all that constitutes the nobility of States. Could the voice of the great men who have passed before him mingle with that of your speaker in commemoration of him of whom all your hearts are full to day, they would say, 'Sparta hath a worthier son than I.' Of all the monuments which our country shall rear to those who have gone before or shall come after him, let that which marks the virtues of the great and good Quitman, rise high above all others—

"As the snow-capped mountain overlooks the lightning
And applies itself to Heaven."

"Let its foundations be laid deep and broad, as the elements of his own great character, on the bluff-hill of the city of his home. Let its solid masonry be typical of his untending integrity; its chaste and polished shaft of his grace and modesty. Let it rise in altitude, until a morning sun shall cast its long-extended shadow across the bosom of the great Father of waters, where it mingles his eternal

regimen, to the Louisiana shore, forming another link to unite us with that sister sovereign, who delighted to join her voice with ours in doing honor to him while he lived, and mingle her tears with ours o'er his bier to-day."

In the recent *Annual Report to Congress*, the Secretary of State introduces a letter from C. G. Baylor, now Consul at Manchester, in which it is stated that the subject of *direct trade* with the South is again attracting interest on the Continent, and that Belgium is prepared to become the centre of the movement. Steps are now being taken, it is said, to receive the cotton direct from the plantations of America, to be sold on the Continent under the auspices and guarantee of ample and well-known capital, in the most expeditious and economical manner, direct to the consumer in Belgium, Switzerland, in the Zollverein, and in Germany. To meet this cotton import and impart the character of reciprocity to the trade, and supply the important feature of a return trade with cheap freights, the manufacturing interest in Belgium is about to be organized, and through a means at once simple, practicable, and attractive, a committee has been formed, under the administration of which will be held exhibitions of Continental industry, taste and manufacturing skill throughout the Southern States of America in the principal towns.

We give this statement as we find it, though not without some misgivings, knowing as we do the very ardent temperament of Mr. Baylor, and the almost insuperable difficulties that are to be overcome which are not always taken into account. The volumes of the *Review*, for many years past, will show that we have lost no opportunity to advocate and encourage the subject of direct Southern trade, and to extend to Mr. Baylor every facility which our editorial position could give. Again, we wish him success. The circular of the Belgian Committee suggests New-Orleans as the seat of the first Fair. May our citizens promptly respond. We extract:

"The first exhibition, it is proposed, shall be held in New-Orleans, and so soon as we shall hear from the authorities of that city, the time of holding the exhibition in the different large towns of the Southern States, will be announced and will be influenced by circumstances, as well as by the wishes and views of the people of the South. In this view we should be pleased to have the views of our friends in

America. We desire also to have an expression of opinion on this important trade movement from all who will take an interest in its success, and who will co-operate with us to give it compactness, unity, and a practical result.

"We are authorized to say that we have received the assurance of the lively interest which the Government of the King takes in the matter. We should be most happy to report to the manufacturers, an equal interest as existing among the Southern people for the establishment of an independent and reciprocal direct trade with the merchants, capitalists, and manufacturers of the Continent of Europe."

Mr. Goodrich of Utica, New-York, whose researches upon the sugar-cane we are now publishing in the *Review*, has written us a note which we take the liberty to publish. He says:

"The study of vegetable pathology has occupied the intervals of time in the duties of my profession for many years. Beginning with the potato, in 1846, I soon saw that the facts in the disease of the potato were but illustrations of a few great general laws applicable to all vegetables.

"Hence, in the study of the morbid indications of that plant I was led, collaterally, to study them in all other plants and fruits ordinarily cultivated. My attention was first drawn to the diseases of the sugar-cane, by the facts recorded in the *Patent Office Report of 1848*, though my particular attention was not enlisted until some seven years later. It will not appear strange to you, then, that one, with such a theory in his mind should assume, with some degree of boldness, to study the condition of a plant which he has never seen in a growing state; and who at most has been familiar with the cultivation of Indian corn, and the Chinese sugar-cane.

"Yet, while I have written in a somewhat confident tone I feel that it is but the part of due deference to refer my views of the subject to intelligent men who are engaged in the actual culture of the sugar-cane. To many such I now send copies of my essay. To you, and their respectful notice I must now deferentially commend what I have written.

"You see I have complicated the subject with '*Diseases of the Grape*;' this was done from the conviction that the causes were similar."

Discoeris in North and Central Africa.
New-York: Harper & Brothers.
1859.

African explorations have, in the past few years, attracted the greatest attention, and it is not saying too much, that they have developed more in formation in regard to that almost *terra incognita*, than could be gleaned from the records of the previous century. The volumes published by the Harpers are especially valuable, and will soon be made by us the basis of an elaborate article. The present constitutes the third and last volume, by Henry Barth.

Plata—The Argentine Confederacy. New-York: Harper & Bros., 1859. This is a very large octavo, handsomely embellished, and is the result of the labors of Captain Page, of the United States Navy, whose report of explorations in that region has been analyzed by us. We shall do a similar service to our readers in this instance.

isodes of French History during the Consulate and the First Empire. By Miss PARDOE. Harper & Brothers.

skenci—The San Jacinto in the Seas of India, China, and Japan. By M. V. WOOD, M. D., U. S. Navy. Harper & Brothers.

icess of Scotland and English Princesses connected with the royal succession of Great Britain. By AGNES STRICKLAND, Vol. VII. Harper & Brothers.

Old Plantation, and what I gathered there. By JAMES HUNGERFORD, of Maryland. Harper & Brothers.

Laird of Norlaw. Harper & Brothers.

The Harpers, of New-York, are very liberal in their contributions to our table present month. Most of the works of a standard and valuable character may be ordered with propriety by each of our families. Such contributions to literature as those of Misses Strickland and Pardoe, are in the highest degree calculated to instruct, elevate and improve. No fireside should be without them. Dr. Wood's work is also one of the greatest interest and value. The Harpers also published the following works recently, of which we have not received copies:

Agnes Hopetoun's Schools and Homes: The Experiences of a Little Girl. Mrs. Oliphant, author of "Katie Hart," "The Quiet Heart," etc.

Lockran's Concise History of England in Epochs. With Chronological Tables and Maps.

Passages from my Autobiography, by Anne Lady Morgan.

Civilized America, by Thomas Colley.

Eric; or, Little by Little: a Tale of a New-England School, by Frederic W. Farrar.

Right or Wrong, by Miss Jewsbury.

Hilmar's History of German Literature.

ton's Abridgment of the Congressional Debates, Vol. VIII. 1859.

The reception of previous volumes has

regularly been noted by us. The work was left in such condition at the time of the decease of Mr. Benton, that the series of 15 volumes will be very soon published. We know of no work so valuable to the student of political history, or the politician; indeed it would be an important addition to any library whatever. The Messrs. Appleton and Co., of New-York, deserve great credit for their enterprise in issuing this great national work. The same house publishes the following, of which we have not yet been furnished with copies:

Appleton's New American Cyclopædia, a Popular Dictionary of General Knowledge, to be completed in 15 vols. (three volumes have already appeared).

Burton's Cyclopædia of Wit and Humor: 2 vols., with wood and steel engravings, &c.

An Inquiry into the Law of Negro Slavery in the United States, to which is prefixed an Historical Sketch of Slavery. By THOS. R. R. COBB, of Georgia, Vol. I. Philadelphia: T. & J. Johnson & Co. 1859.

The author enters an almost untrodden field; the work of Stroud being of an abolition character, and that of Wheeler a mere compendium of abridged decisions. We imagine, therefore, that the work will be much sought by lawyers and planters throughout the South. Mr. Cobb seems to have pursued diligently the field he has marked out, and will complete the subject in another volume. About one half of this is occupied with the history of slavery, and the remaining chapters treat of the rights, abilities, disabilities, civil and political relations of slaves. To these points we will refer hereafter.

Another work upon slavery, by Mr. Sawyer, of Louisiana, has been issued from the press, but has not reached our table.

Thanks to John Jay, Esq., of New-York, for a copy of his able paper, contributed to the New-York Statistical Society, on the subject of *American Agriculture*, which occupies quite a volume. Mr. Jay seems to have labored very assiduously, and deserves the thanks of the whole country. At an early date we shall refer in detail to his facts and deductions. At present we can only congratulate the New-York Statistical and Geographical Society

upon the growing extent and value of the labors. After the reading of Mr. Jay's paper, the following resolution was adopted, which we conceive to be of great importance :

Resolved, That, in the opinion of the Society, the increasing magnitude of the Agricultural interest in the United States, renders it a matter of national importance that the Agricultural schedules for the census of 1860, should be made as complete as possible, with the view of marking accurately its progress, its establishment, and the profits of agricultural labor; and with the further view of discovering, and to what extent, the arable soil of the country is deteriorating in fertility under existing modes of cultivation."

In our last number we copied, in extenso, the address of the Bishop of the Episcopal Church, setting forth the objects and purposes of the proposed *Southern University*, and took occasion to say how deeply we were interested in the success of this truly patriotic and noble movement. More recently the Commissioners for Louisiana and Georgia have issued a special address in pamphlet form, and laid a copy of it upon our table. The address truly and beautifully exposes the details of the system, and invokes with eloquence appropriate private aid. It will be a part of our duty to give the address entire to the readers of the Review, but at present we can only give its closing words, in the hope that they will be brought home to every heart :

"Take this pamphlet home with you; read it in your domestic circle; weigh in the balance against money the worth of good principles and high education for your children; summon before you the isolation in which the world is attempting to place you and your institutions; recall all you have ever said that breathed of love for the South, that savored of indignation against those that were warring against her; bring to your remembrance your many resolutions for benefiting your homes, your many reproaches because your section would not vindicate herself; above all, recollect that your wealth is a trust from God, for which you must account to him as well as to society; and determine in the face of all these considerations and memories, whether you will turn your back upon this most promising conception, or come up like whole-hearted Southern and Christian men, and found a University for the South, that shall be worthy of our fathers, worthy of our children."

The report of the Committee on Federal Relations of the Senate of the State of Louisiana, is a bold and able document from the pen of Edward DeLony, who, it will be remembered, furnished us a paper upon the *slave trade* some months since, which was much read and referred to. It discusses the constitutionality and propriety of an act submitted to the committee, in the words, to wit :

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana, in General Assembly convened, That any citizens or association of citizens of this State, be and they are hereby authorized to purchase negro slaves from Cuba, Brazil and Africa, and to bring the said slaves so purchased into this State, and to hold the same in full right and title for their own proper use, benefit and behoof: Provided, said slaves, so purchased and imported into this State, shall be subject to the same regulations and tariff of duties as other species of foreign property or imports."

We quote the closing words of the Report :

"The Acts of Congress prohibiting the importation of negro slaves, and making such importation a piracy, constitute a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of powers not granted by the Constitution, and the State of Louisiana has the right, and is in duty bound, to interpose, and in solemn vindication of her sovereignty and the reserved rights of her people, to arrest the further progress or execution on her own citizens of these unconstitutional Acts."

"We claim, then, that the General Assembly of this State has the unquestionable right to pass this bill, and reinvest her citizens with the authorities and right which the Federal Government has unconstitutionally wrested from them; that this State has the full and clear right to authorize its citizens to import negro slaves from Cuba or Africa, under such regulations as it may deem proper to make, and that any interference by the Federal Government or its authorities to coerce or enforce the said unconstitutional Act of Congress against any citizen or citizens of Louisiana, who are or may be exercising the rights authorized by this bill, would constitute an act of tyranny and injustice, not less bold and oppressive than any example to be found in modern times, and which may speedily lead to a central usurpation and consolidation of powers by the Federal Government more odious than a monarchy, and utterly destructive of the liberties of the people."

We are indebted to the Hon. Elijah Ward, of New-York, for a copy of his elaborate remarks, made recently in Congress, on the importance of the Atrato Canal to the commerce of the United States, and shall extract from them in our next. Our readers will remember that several years ago we published an article upon the subject accompanied by a map, recommending

t as the most feasible inter-oceanic communication.

In the last number of the *Farmer and Planter*, published in Columbia, S. C., is an article on the application to the cotton crop of Rhodes's Super-Phosphate and Peruvian Guano, the advertisement of which appears in our pages. In this article it is highly recommended. We are told it has received commendations from the Press all over the United States, in England, and the Island of Cuba, where the Marquis Concha, Captain-General, directed during last season an experiment on cotton—a crop which the Cubans are anxious of introducing into the Island. Three contiguous lots, of equal size, quality of soil, and exposure, were respectively manured, each with a different fertilizer, viz.: Peruvian, and South Key Cuban Guano, and Rhodes's Super-phosphate. The result proved so marked in favor of the latter that his excellency sent an official relation of it to Spain. Their experiments on tobacco were equally satisfactory.

Edmund Ivens, Esq., of New-Orleans, sends us the extended pamphlet account of Rahm's Machine Works of Richmond, Virginia, which are advertised in our columns. Mr. Rahm says in his preface:

"To support the interests and institutions of the South, patronize those that are identical with her interests, and especially when it can be done peculiarly to an advantage to the Southern purchaser. In the continuation of my business, I beg leave to say that I will sell one single machine, steam engine or mill that I cannot fairly represent or fully warrant—and in the event of its failing to comply with my representation, in all cases, I allow the purchaser the privilege of returning the machinery at my expense. I will continue to furnish the most modern and approved construction of machinery, and make it of the very best materials and workmanship of the present day. I shall also continue to send my own mechanics to erect my machinery, and learn the parties purchasing it work it. My prices shall in all cases compare favorably with those of other manufacturers for the same class and size machinery. In this as my mode of doing business, I ask a continuation of the patronage and support so liberally bestowed upon me heretofore."

Major Beauregard will receive our thanks for the copies he has furnished of his *Report on the Proposed Drainage System of New-Orleans*, which will

receive attention in another number of the *Review*.

We also acknowledge the receipt of the *Catalogue of the Officers and Cadets of the Kentucky Military Institute*, which is in very successful operation, near Frankfort, Kentucky, and is advertised in our pages. At present the number of students is very large, and the terms moderate.

The editor of the *Review* proposes to sell, and is open to offers from those acquainted with the property, a tract of land situated in Bexar district, Texas, the description of which is as follows:

Surveys No. 871 and 874 in section No. 74, on the south bank of the south fork of the Llano, about 55 miles northwest of Fredericksburg, 1,400 acres in all. Grant to Edwin Quinby, now in name of J. D. B. De Bow.

For the following numbers of the *Review* we will give the subscription price, or make exchanges:

1846	{ January to May, inclusive, July, and September, October, and November.
1847	{ January, March, May, June, and July.
1849	{ August.
1850	{ September.
1851	{ January, February, and June.
1856	{ January of each.
1858	{

THE following estate, beautifully situated upon the Potomac, is offered for sale by the Editor of the *Review*. It furnishes one of the best "gentleman's country-seats." It contains 156 acres of land for wheat, grass, or gardening, and is situated in the county of Alexandria, Va., three miles from the city of Washington, and about the same distance from the city of Alexandria, possessing a large and commodious shipping port. The Washington and Alexandria turnpike, a railroad, and canal, pass through the premises, and afford it the easiest communication with the two cities, and all other parts of the Union. The dwelling-house is a new frame house, containing twelve commodious rooms and a kitchen. The out-buildings are all new and frame, and consist of two store-rooms and a summer-kitchen, with a large cellar under them—a barn, a stable, carriage-house, ice-house, etc. There are on the premises several excellent springs, and near the house a brass pump. The tract bordering on the Potomac river, has a fine fishing shore, and a splendid view on the river, with the purest air. 126 acres of it are under cultivation, and the rest is woodland: oak, walnut, and hickory. The place has also a strong water-power, sufficient for a large mill or factory. Terms: one third of the consideration cash down; the balance to be paid in such instalments as may suit the convenience of the purchaser, to be secured on the premises.

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY, 1846.

MAY, 1859.

VOL. XXVI., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 5, N. S.

ART. I.—ANCIENT FAMILIES OF VIRGINIA, MARYLAND, ETC.

[THE records of families are quite as interesting as those of states, especially where the families (like John Randolph, we have much faith in stock) have produced men of distinction, and been greatly ramified; and, on this account, we are pleased to perceive a growing interest in questions of pedigree, and are disposed to indulge our friend, Mr. Fitzhugh, though entering, in this instance, more into detail than is altogether consistent with the limited space of a work like ours. With him, we agree, that it ought to be no discredit to a man to have had a grandfather.]

JOHN CARROL BRENT, Esq., of Washington, learning that we were anxious to explore the early history of the Northern Neck of Virginia, and particularly desirous to examine the papers of the Brent family, has kindly and politely furnished us a manuscript work, modestly termed "Brent Family, of Woodstock." This book is, in truth, a very concise history, or genealogy of the Brent family, from Odo de Brent, who was Lord of Cosington, at the time of the Norman Conquest, to the present day. It derives its interest to the American reader, from the facts that the Brents were active and distinguished leaders in the settlement of Maryland and Virginia; have filled, not without distinction, very many public offices, civil and military, both before and since the Revolution; have been eminent in the learned professions; have settled in many States of the Union; and are connected by blood, by intermarriage, and by the ties of friendship, with many thousands of respectable and intelligent people.

Our wish to see the Brent papers, arose from our knowledge of the fact, that George Brent was associate land agent with William Fitzhugh, for Lord Fairfax and Lady Culpepper, about the year 1690. We find in the book but little of the kind of information we expected, but a great deal of more val-

uable and interesting matter. George Brent, the founder of the Woodstock branch of the family, was a more distinguished man than the compilers of this book seem to be aware of. The trust reposed in him by Lord Fairfax, the high opinion entertained of him by Lord Baltimore, the estimation in which he was held in Virginia and in England, and the tribute to his worth, in his funeral sermon, preached by Mr. Carroll, afterward Catholic Archbishop of Baltimore, leave no doubt that he was no ordinary man.

Premising thus much, and the additional fact, which we have learned, that one of the De Brents was a signer of Magna Charta, we will proceed to give the genealogy as we find it—assuring the reader that its interest and instructiveness continually increase, as it emerges from the dark vista of the past, and approaches our own times. In its progress, it loses little of the romance of ancient feudalism (for the Brents were feudal lords in Maryland, and semi-feudal lords in Virginia), while it is continually adding the sober, commonplace realities of modern times to the wild tales of adventure of border life in America and mediæval enterprise in England:

THE PEDIGREE OF THE BRENTS OF COSINGTON, IN THE COUNTY OF SOMERSET.

“It is recorded in the Red Book of the Knights’ Fees in the Exchequer, that Odo de Brent, at the time of the Conquest, was Lord of Cosington. The name of Odo’s son was not known, but his grandchild was Jeffry, whose son was Nicholas, whose son was Robert, and his son was Robert. So there were four Roberts, successively. The son of the last was John, and his son, Robert, and his son was likewise Robert, which Robert married Margaret, and had two sons, John and Robert. The said John, who married Pontfort, died Anno Domini 524, had two sons, William and Richard, which William had Richard to his son, who married the daughter of Lord Stirton, and had Anne, who was married to Thomas Lord Paulet, by whom he had a daughter, who was married to Hobby, and died without issue; so that the eldest line ended in the life of Queen Elizabeth. Richard, the son of John, and brother of William, aforesaid, had issue Stephen, Giles, and John—Stephen had John to his son, to whom, after the death of Hobby, Cosington descended as next heir. His son, also, was John, who possessed the land Anno 1676. From Giles, descended Thomas Brent of Salisbury; but John, the brother of Giles, died without issue. The aforesaid Robert, son of Robert, by Margaret, in 1487, came to Stoke, near Campden, in Gloucestershire, and there lived concealed by the name of John Beaton, and married the daughter of Lord Colchester, Lord of Stoke and Adrington, aforesaid. The said Robert had Richard, who died before his father. This Richard had Richard, and he likewise had Richard, to whom descended the Lordships of Stoke and Adrington. He was, by Richard, his grandfather, left ward to Edward Reed, Lord of Turburie and Willen, and married Eleanor, the eldest daughter of the said Reed (this Richard, it seems, was common ancestor of Woodstock and Richland), by whom he had many children, viz.: Foulke, Richard, Giles, William, Edward, and George, Margaret, Mary, Catharine, Elizabeth,leanor, Jane, and Annie. Foulke died childless; Richard married the daughter of Sir John Reed, and had many children, who lived to be men and women, and the whole of them died, but the two youngest, Robert and Margaret. Robert, Lord of Stoke, had one son, named Folcatius. To him descended Cosington, at the death of John Brent, aforesaid.

• Giles, the third son of the said Richard (of Richard who married Lord

Reed's daughter), came to Maryland about the year 1637, and was Governor there. But that country being taken, he removed to Virginia about the year 1645." (We shall presently attempt to show that he settled in Northumberland; that his son moved to King George—then Stafford—and, probably, his grandson to Richland, now in Prince William—then in Stafford. This, the elder branch of the family, is usually called the Richland Brents; while the branch of whom we have more particularly to treat, is called the Woodstock branch. There is a Woodstock in King George, which was patented by a Brent, but he must have been of the elder or Maryland branch; Woodstock being, probably, an old English seat of the Brents, from which both branches sprung. To proceed with the genealogy:—"He (Giles) had many children; only the oldest son, Giles, lived, who had Giles and William, Margaret and Mary. Giles married Jane, the daughter of Col. William Chandler (the Chandlers were a Maryland family), by whom he had a daughter, who died soon after she was born. William, who was heir entail to the estate in Virginia, and, next after his son, was heir to Cosington, went over to England, in 1708, and married there." (As to this William Brent, we find the following in the continuation of the genealogy:—"William Brent, who went to England in 1708, in order to recover the two Lordships of Stoke and Cosington, being heir, entail, to the said estates. He married, in London, the 12th day of May, 1709, Sarah Gibbons, of Box Parish, the daughter of William Gibbons, of Wiltshire, gentleman. He died soon after his marriage, November 26 following, and left his wife with child of a son, of whom she was afterward delivered, March 6th, 1710; his name is also William, and is heir entail to the estates in England and Virginia. His mother brought him over to Virginia, January, 1717, and, the 20th May thereafter, was married, herself, to the Rev. Alexander Scott, rector of Overwharton parish, in Stafford county, Virginia, and died 3d October, 1733. [Bishop Meade, it appears, is mistaken in saying Rev. A. Scott never married.] Scott and Rev. Daniel Stuart were friends, and emigrated at the same time from Scotland. Stuart afterward married a Miss Gibbons (our mother's ancestor); from her were descended Gen. Philip Stuart, deceased, of Washington; Hon. William Ashton Gibbons Dade, deceased, and ex-Senator Henry S. Foote; and from the elder Miss Gibbons, Senator Richard Brent, and the Hon. — Brent, Senator, formerly from Louisiana.)" "The fourth son of the said Richard, and the fifth, died childless—but George, the sixth son, married Marianna, the daughter of Sir John Dunnington, in the Isle of Ely, by whom he had George, John, Henry, William, Edward, and Robert, Anne, Elizabeth, Dorothy, Mary, Margaret, and Ursula. George came to Virginia and settled at Woodstock, in Stafford county; he married the daughter of Capt. William Green, and niece of Sir William Layton; by her he had George, Nicholas, and Robert. Marianna and Elizabeth. She died in child-bed of another girl, March 26th, 1686. The said George, the 27th March, 1687, married again, married the second daughter of Lord Baltimore, by her first husband Henry Sewell, who was widow to Col. William Chandler, by whom she had many children, but only three lived, Henry, Mary, and Martha, of whom she died in child-bed, the 20th March, 1693-'4. The second son of the said George Brent, Esq., the son of Richard, died young. The third son of the said George, Henry, married the daughter of Henry Calvert, Esq., sometime Governor of Maryland, by whom he had many children, all of whom died before himself, who died January, 1694, and his land descended to George Brent, of Woodstock (who, it seems, was his father). The fourth son of said George Brent, named William, died unmarried, and Edward, the fifth son, likewise died young, at the college of Douay, in Flanders; but Robert, the sixth son, married Anna, the daughter of Edward Bough, Esq., of Penfon, in Worcestershire, and brought her into Virginia, in the year 1686, settled in Stafford county, where he had many children by her, all of whom died, except three: Marianna, who died unmarried, Elizabeth, who married Jesse Boyne, of Charles county, Maryland, by whom he had many children, who are now living, and Richard, who died unmarried."

The writer from whom we copy next proceeds to give the descendants of the female line. We defer following him, until we have attempted to give a short account of the elder or Maryland branch of the family.

The first settlers arrived in Maryland in February, 1634, under the command of Leonard Calvert, brother of Cecilius Calvert, Lord Baltimore, and proprietary of Avalon and Maryland. "The adventurers are represented to have been chiefly persons of considerable wealth and distinction, who left their country to avoid the inconveniences of religious intolerance." Cecilius Calvert was son of Sir George Calvert, created baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, by King James I., in 1623. Previous to this he had obtained a grant of Avalon, being part of Newboundland, and made a settlement there at a place called Ferryland. The grant of Maryland was made by Charles I. to George Lord Baltimore, in 1631, and renewed to his son Cecilius in 1632.

Lord Baltimore was not only invested with all the ordinary powers of a sovereign prince, but he was, besides, sole owner of the soil of the colony. He introduced the feudal system into his province, by granting many manors, and creating lords of manors with all the privileges of the English nobility of the middle ages. One of these Maryland lords, we shall presently show, was Giles Brent.

"The following notice of Giles Brent I find in Kitty's *Landholders' Assistant* :

"Brought into the province in the year 1637, by Giles Brent, Esq., five servants, Humphrey F., &c. In the year 1638, six servants, with his own person, John, &c.

"By warrant 9th October, 1639, signed Leonard Calvert, and certificate of John Lewger, surveyor, a portion of town land, sixty acres or thereabouts, near Smith's forge, on St. George's river, and adjoining land of his, granted to Giles Brent.

"7th January, 1639: I would have you lay out for Giles Brent, Gentleman, Treasurer of the Council of this province, one thousand acres of land lying nearest together, about Kent Fort; and one thousand acres more where he shall desire it, and to certify, Mr. Secretary, what you do therein, to Robert Clarke, Deputy surveyor.

"Came into the province 22d November, 1638, Mr. Giles Brent and Mr. Fulke Brent, his brother, who returned in March following: Mrs. Margaret Brent, Mrs. Mary Brent, who transported Mary F., E., E., &c., maid-servants; and John G——, blacksmith."

It was usual, then, to entitle unmarried ladies "Mistress," as well as married ones. These ladies were unmarried. Mrs. Margaret, a Queen Bess *in petto*, afterward plays a conspicuous part in the history of England. Mr. Kitty, with becoming delicacy, will not copy from the records the surnames of the servants. In America everybody is ashamed of low ancestry because it is low, and everybody, almost, ashamed of respectable parentage, and afraid to acknowledge it, lest he should be slandered and abused as a "rich aristocrat." To be *filius nullius*, is the only way to escape censure for what one cannot help, one's ancestry.

"Extracted from Bozman's *History of Maryland*, 1642, vol. ii., page 237.—Seventy-three of the inhabitants of the isle of Kent (included in the commission of 106 [just named]) had appointed Mr. Giles Brent as their proxy to the assembly.

"*Note*.—Mr. Brent (proxy for that island) was at this time lord of the manor of Kent Fort, and probably resided thereon, at or near what is called Kent Point.

"*Note*, p. 238.—The chief judge of St. Mary's was the governor himself, and, by a commission in 1640, Mr. Giles Brent had been constituted chief judge, as well as commander of the isle of Kent. Mr. Brent is stated by Bozman to have taken an active and leading part in the deliberations of the assembly.

"P. 352, 1643.—From some cause not assigned nor clearly to be inferred, he [Gov. Calvert] had formed the resolution of returning home to England, and in virtue of his last commission from his brother, he appointed Mr. Giles Brent deputy governor, in his absence; Mr. Brent qualified as governor 15th April, 1643. His office ceased 10th September, 1644, by the return of Leonard Calvert, who resumed the office of governor."

Our lord of Kent Fort, it appears, in consequence of rebellions and revolutions, about the year 1645 found his island too hot to hold him, and removed to Virginia. After awhile, by the aid of Mr. Henning, we shall follow him to his new home, and show that the restless spirit of the feudal baron soon exhibited itself under the form of the marauding border chieftain. In the meanwhile, we will resume our attentions to the ladies, who stood their ground, probably, because they were situated in a part of the province removed from the immediate scene of war.

"P. 307.—Mrs. Margaret Brent and Mary Brent, having sworn that Leonard Calvert, by word of mouth on his death-bed did appoint Thomas Green, one of the council, to be his successor, the author, in a note, observes: 'These ladies were the sisters of Giles Brent, whom we have frequently before had occasion to mention. The Brent family were probably connected with that of Lord Baltimore, either by blood or marriage, for it appears that Mrs. Margaret Brent now became the administratrix of Mr. Leonard Calvert's estate.' (*Kitty's Landholders' Assistant*, p. 104.) P. 314, 1647.—On the same day (November 16th), or about the same time, according to the record. This day the question was moved in court whether or no Mr. Leonard Calvert, remaining his lordship's sole attorney within this province, and then dying, the said Mr. Calvert's administrator was to be received for his lordship's attorney within this province until such time as his lordship had made a new substitution, or that some other remaining upon the present commission was arrived in the province. The governor demanding Mr. Brent's opinion (Mr. Giles Brent was the eldest counsellor, being the first named in the commission of 1644), upon the said query he answered that he 'did conceive that the administrator ought to be looked upon as the attorney to the recovering of rights unto the estate, and paying of debts out of the estate, and taking care of the estate's preservation, but not further, until his lordship shall substitute some other as aforesaid;' and thereupon the governor conceived and it was ordered that the administrator of Mr. Leonard Calvert, aforesaid, should be received as his lordship's attorney to the intents above stated (Council proceedings from 1636 to 1657, page 165.)

"The word administrator is used for administratrix, for Mrs. Margaret Brent was unquestionably the administratrix of Mr. Leonard Calvert. This lady appears to have possessed a masculine understanding, and she is stated by a writer much conversant with the land records of Maryland (Mr. Kittv), 'to have been actively employed in taking up land, and in affairs of all kinds relating to property.'

"Page 322.—It is at this session also (1648), that Miss Margaret Brent, the

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irkable lady heretofore mentioned, made her application to the house of nobly, 'to have a vote for herself and *another* as his lordship's attorney.' This was refused peremptorily by Gov. Green, and the lady protested in against all the proceedings of that assembly, unless she might be present vote as aforesaid. (This is stated on Mr. Kitty's authority, nothing appearing on the journal.) Bozman appears of Green's opinion, and observes: 'while the same time experience in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, to whose character of our Maryland lady may be aptly compared, has absolutely demonstrated the monarchical power cannot be more safely lodged than in female hands.' Bozman here makes a republican speech, but not a very gallant one.

Page 344.—Mrs. Margaret Brent again appears on the provincial records, thus: December 7th, 1648; came Mrs. Margaret Brent—required the opinion of the court touching the patent of Mr. Leonard Calvert, in the case of the tenements pertaining to the rebels, within the manor, whether or no the forfeitures belonged to the Lord of the Manor?

The court resolved that the forfeitures in question did belong to the Lord of the Manor.—Page 301. Lord Calvert being much displeased with Mrs. Margaret Brent's conduct (distributing cattle among the soldiers), expressed bitter civilities against her. The Assembly, however, in their spirited address and reply, generously defended her, and added, as a strong reason, that 'the soldiers would never have treated any other with that civility and respect, and though they were ready at several times to run into mutiny, yet she still pacified us.' This does great honor to the character and understanding of the lady, and is one, among numerous examples, to be found in history, where power, vested in female hands, is prudently exercised, and is more readily obeyed and submitted to, than the same would have been if administered in the hands of the other sex. There is a chivalrous disposition in citizens, as well as soldiers, to obey the commands of woman."

This is the last we find in the Family Book concerning Mrs. Margaret. No doubt she played Queen Bess throughout—although a great personage, few would have selected her as a wife.

We find in Kitty's *Landholders' Assistant*, p. 106, a copy of the Grant from Lord Baltimore to Giles Brent, of the Manor of Kent Fort, on Kent Island, near Annapolis. The reader will find that society was originally organized on the aristocratic system in Maryland. The substitution of negroes for white vassals has rendered it still more aristocratic. Primogeniture and entail would perfect its organization. To this, blatant democracy is unconsciously drifting, in its home-ade exemption laws, and many other laws exempting certain descriptions of property from liability to debt.

Know ye, that for and in consideration that our dear brother, Leonard Calvert, Esq., our lieutenant-general of our Province of Maryland, hath done unto many acceptable services, and sustained much hazard and charge in reducing the Island of Kent under our government, have therefore of, and with the advice of our said dear brother, and at his humble motion and request, given, granted, assented, and confirmed, and by these presents, for us and our heirs, do enjoin and confirm unto our right faithful and beloved Councillor, Giles Brent, assignee of our said brother, all that neck of land lying nearest together about Kent Fort, the said Isle of Kent, bounding upon the west, east, and south, upon Chesapeake Bay, upon the north with a line drawn through the woods, straight east to the northernmost branch of the creek called Northwest Creek, unto a point in the said bay, on the east side of the said neck, containing by estima-

tion and new set forth for one thousand acres, be it more or less, and all woods, mines, quarries (royal mines excepted), waters royal, fishes, fishings, fishing places, advowsons, and patronages of churches, wrecks not claimed by the owner in a year and a day, waifs, strays, felons' goods, free warren, liberty of hunting, hawking, and fowling for any sort of game whatever, and all other profits, advantages, emoluments and hereditaments, in and upon the same, or any part thereof, saving to us and our heirs our royal jurisdiction and seignory, as absolute lords and proprietors of the said Province of Maryland, and saving unto Giles Basha and Thomas Allen, their heirs and assigns, their freehold granted, or to be granted, to them, which we will, nevertheless, that they, and either of them, hold from Giles Brent, and his heirs, paying the rents, and performing the services for the same to our dear brother, in the same manner that the same ought to have been paid to us or our heirs; to have and to hold the same, unto him the said Giles Brent, and his heirs forever; to be holden of us and our heirs as of our honor of St. Marie's, in free and common socage, by fealty only for all services, yielding and paying therefor yearly, to us and our heirs, lords and proprietaries of the said province, at the place where the mill now standeth, two barrels of good corn at the feast of the Lord's Nativity; and we will and appoint that the said parcel or neck of land shall from henceforth be one entire Manor, and be called by the name of 'The Manor of Fort Kent;' and that 300 acres of the same shall forever henceforth be accounted and known for the demesne lands of the said Manor, and shall be set forth by distinct metes and bounds for that purpose and that the said Giles Brent, and his heirs, may at all times hereafter grant and convey any part of said premises, except the 300 acres, unto any other person or persons of English or Irish descent, either in fee simple or fee tail for life, lives, or years, to be held of the said Giles Brent, and his heirs, or of the Manor of Kent Fort, by and under such rents and services as he or they shall think fit. And further, We do, for us and our heirs, grant and give to said Giles Brent, and his heirs forever, that he and they may, within the said Manor, have, hold, and enjoy, one Court, in the nature of a Court Baron, and in that Court hold pleas of all and all manner of actions, suits, trespasses, quarrels, debts, and demands whatsoever, happening or arising within the said manor, which in debt or damages do not exceed the sum of forty shillings of lawful English money, to be held by the said Giles Brent and his heirs only, his or their Steward, from time to time, to be appointed, and by the free suitors of said Manor. And further, shall and may forever hereafter, twice in every year, viz: in the month after Michaelmas, and the month after Easter, hold and enjoy a court leet or view of frank pledge, and all that a court leet or view of frank pledge doth any way belong to or appertain; to be holden of him or them, and by his or their seneschal or steward, from time to time by him or them to be appointed, and therein to inquire of all offences and crimes committed, or to be committed within the precincts of said Manor, which may or ought by the law or custom of England, to be inquired into in any court leet or manor of frank pledge, within the realm of England," &c., &c.

The court leet granted in the above deed is worthy of special attention, reflection, and study. It seems to have been a reinnant or outgrowth of the hundreds and tithings of Alfred. It was the last and most important link in that series of subordinations which naturally and properly constitutes all societies. It was government looking into the affairs of neighborhoods, families, and individuals; punishing their minutest offences, and preventing crime by nipping it in the bud. Our grand juries but illy supply its place. Its original intent was to view the frank pledges, that is, the freemen within the liberty, who were all mutually pledges for the good behavior of each other. It resembled, in its sphere and influence, the

man censorship, and the Jewish and Catholic priesthood. The best, most useful and efficacious laws are sumptuary laws; because they enter the domicile, regulate domestic life, and inculcate in families and individuals to moral, industrious, and frugal habits. It is too late to make good citizens of men who have been corrupted by vicious family education. The effect of luxury and corruption among the Romans was to make them restive under the restraints of censors and sumptuary laws. These gotten rid of, and all the restraints of religion and morality were speedily thrown aside. The licentious spirit of the age of Augustus proceeded entirely from the fact that men had lost all distinct ideas of right and wrong, moral and religious conviction. We hate the word toleration, because it proposes to permit the practice of what government considers wrong. Men with weak moral, political, and religious convictions are weak and contemptible men. Those who have distinct and strong convictions are always inclined to compel others to comply with their opinions. Society can only be strong and compacted when its members think alike. To enforce them to act alike is the chief object of society and first duty of government. The silly speech has been falsely attributed to Charles V. that he repented of toleration because he could not make two watches go exactly alike. The whole of the watchmaker's business is to make watches work alike, and he does not desist from his endeavors because he only approximates success. The whole duty of government is to make men act alike, and, like the watchmaker, it should not give over its work because its success is incomplete. Humanity is always approximating nearer attaining the right. Colonial New-England and Virginia were strong, because the people thought alike and acted in concert. They were intolerant because their convictions were strong and distinct. Maryland, divided between Catholics and Protestants, was tolerant, characterless, and feeble.* Under the head of political economy a new Augustan age has been ushered in; and now all moral science is resolved on the single maxim: *Laissez faire*—in English, "to let everybody do pretty much as everybody pleases." It was a practice long before it became a system of philosophy; it arose necessarily and instantly from the liberation of the vassals of Kent, and the breaking up the manors and setting free the serfs of Europe. Licentiousness has become the order of the day; because there are neither lords, seneschals, tithing-men,

There are, of course, many matters in which we do not agree with Mr. Fitzhugh, if he is understood strictly, and this is one of them.—[EDITOR.]

priests, nor censors, to restrain licentiousness. Even the Augustan age is outstripped in fashionable crime, by the philosophy and practice of free-love in France and our North.

In Europe, every reading and thinking man sees and admits that political economy arose at once from the liberation of the serfs; because it removed most of the restraints of law and authority, and placed men in seemingly equal, but actually, competitive and antagonistic positions. When will the infatuated South awake from its torpor, and discover that it is cherishing a philosophy at war with its institutions—a philosophy which grew out of abolition, and which teaches abolition?

Let us now attempt to follow the abdicating lord of Kent Fort in his exodus. The first mention of him we find is in 1661, in what is now King George. There was no population there, we are sure, until many years after he left Maryland; and, we think, he first lived in Northumberland or Lancaster, where the Brent name is still found.

"We find frequent notice of Giles Brent (either the lord of Kent Fort or his son), in Henning's *Statutes at Large*, vol. ii., beginning at page 149.

"The first is a proceeding in which a committee of the House of Burgesses report that the king of the Potomac Indians, Wahanganoche, is not guilty of high treason, charged against him by Giles Brent.

"The second, a proceeding in which the house adjudge that Capt. Giles Brent pay the king of Potomac two hundred arms length of roanoke, and that Mr. Lord, Col. Gerrard Fowke and Capt. George Mason, pay said king one hundred arms length each, or matchcoates for the said roanoke, of two arms length each, at twenty arms length each coate.

"(What were roanoke, and matchcoates, and peake, and wompompeake? They were used as currency in dealing with the Indians, but we know not what they were, nor their relative value.)

"In the third proceeding, Brent and Fowke are fined fifteen thousand pounds of tobacco each, and disqualified from holding office, civil or military, for wrongs done by them to the same Indian king. There are several other proceedings at the same session against Brent on the same account. We have no doubt all he did was right and necessary; for we find at this very session Westmoreland and Northumberland are thrown into one county: 'the better to enable them to defend themselves from the incursions of the Indians.' The government continued to act with so much leniency and remissness toward the Indians, that shortly after the people rose in mass under Bacon, and almost exterminated them."

When, flushed with victory, Bacon turned his arms against the government, Brent had weight and influence enough to raise an army of 1,200 men to oppose him. It is true, when they discovered that Bacon's *remaining* forces were mere rabble like themselves, they fraternized and fled; but this was not Brent's fault. The legislature, years after, in providing payment for this rising under Brent, to put down rebellion, *bear testimony* to the worth of his services. He,

son, and Fowke, were dashing, chivalrous border chieftains—
invaluable citizens for times like those.

We find in the Family Book anecdotes illustrative of our
factions, and graphically descriptive of the times and men of
so troublous and eventful days.

Bacon's Rebellion, Thomas Jefferson's copy, 1665-'66: Of this hom-
on Col. Mason, who commanded the militia regiment of foot, and Capt.
at the troop of horse in that county (Northumberland or Stafford), both
ling six or eight miles downward; having speedy notice, raised thirty or
e men, and pursued those Indians twenty miles up and four miles over that
r into Maryland. When landing at dawn of day they found two small paths.
a leader with his party took a separate path, and in less than a furlong
er found a cabin, which they stealthily surrounded. Capt. Brent went to
Doeg's cabin (as it proved to be), who, speaking the Indian tongue, called to
a 'matchaconicha worship;' that is, a council called frequently such,
g the usual manner with the Indians. The king came trembling forth and
ld have fled, when Capt. Brent, catching hold of his twisted lock (which was
he hair he wore), told him he was come for the murder of Robert Hen. The
pleaded ignorance and slipped loose, whom Brent shot dead with his pistol.
Indians shot two or three guns out of the cabin; the English shot into it.
Indians thronged out at the door and fled. The English shot as many as
could; so they killed ten, as Capt. Brent told me, and brought away the
's son of about eight years old, concerning whom it is an observable
age. At the end of the expedition, the unhappy scene ensued. Col. Mason
the king of the Doeg's son home with him, who lay ten days in bed as one
l, with lips and mouth shut, no breath discerned, but his body continuing
n, they believed him yet alive. The aforesaid Capt. Brent, a papist, coming
er on a visit, and seeing his little prisoner thus languishing, said: 'Perhaps
s powerwowed, that is, bewitched; and that he had heard baptism was an
stual remedy against witchcraft, and therefore advised to baptize him.' Col.
on answered, 'No minister could be had in many miles.' Brent replied,
ur clerk, Mr. Doleson, may do that office;' which was done by the church of
land liturgy. Col. Mason with Capt. Brent godfathers, and Mrs. Mason
mother. My overseer; Mr. Pinnet, being present, from whom I first heard
nd which all the other persons afterward affirmed to me. The four men
rned to drinking punch. [By reviewer: Were they inspired by 'rum, or
religion?'] But Mrs. Mason *staying, and looking on the child*, it opened its
; and breathed; whereat she ran for a cordial which he took from a spoon,
ing for more, and so by degrees recovered—though before this baptism, they
often tried the same means, but could not, by no endeavors, wrench open
mouth. This was taken for a convincing proof against infidelity.—See
the's Historical Tracts."

Capt. Brent and Col. Mason were representative men—
representatives of the times and circumstances in which they
lived. Mrs. Mason was a nobler character—a representative
man, it is true—but the representative of the purest and
best of her sex, only, in every age and in every clime.

Chotauk is a common name for that part of King George
county, lying on the Potomac. It was settled entirely by
English gentlemen. We think Mason, Fowke, Lord, and
Brent, were Chotaukers, not because they liked punch, for
every one likes that, but because the Fowke family settled
there, and still own part of their original farm; because the
Brents patented land there (and, we suppose, lived on it);

because there were Lords there, and because it was before settlements were made as high up the river as Gunston, Lexington, Richland, and Woodstock, afterward the seats of the Masons and Brents.

Should we be mistaken in our statements and suggestions, so much the better, if we can draw out new laborers in the field of historical research, who, in correcting our errors, may disinter many new historical facts. We wish to write a history of the Northern Neck, and can only do it in detail, by writing accounts of separate localities, and of various families. The Northern Neck has never been the theatre of war or of great events. Family history is almost the only history that can be written about it.

The anecdote of the young Indian beautifully illustrates the power which *weakness* exercises over *strength*—the strength of weakness. Conflicting laws sustain the motion and life of the whole moral as well as physical world. Selfishness and anti-selfishness preserve the continued existence of brutes and human beings; just as centripetal and centrifugal attraction keep the planetary system in motion. The undue preponderance of either law, is fatal to life. The too selfish mother destroys her offspring to hide her shame. All parents would destroy their offspring, sooner than undergo the labor and trouble of rearing them, but for the law of anti-selfishness, which compels them to sacrifice self for what is without self. The natural mother cherishes, with fonder affection, her illegitimate, because of the shame she has brought on it; anti-selfishness, with her, is duly developed. God has made infants and slaves dependent, but has armed them with the *strength of weakness*, which conquers their parents and masters, and secures to them love, protection, and support. Philosophy has too generally overlooked this "*antinomy*," this "*contra-lex*;" those opposing laws, by which God governs the universe, and protects the weak.

There is not a word, we believe, in any language, to express the idea which we attempt to convey by the term "anti-selfishness." Yet, anti-selfishness is as universal, and as necessary, as selfishness. Political economy, the only moral philosophy of our times, is founded entirely on selfishness. It absurdly and wickedly teaches that the aggregate good is but the sum of individual good; and, therefore, that each man, in pursuing exclusively his own good, best promotes public well-being. If philosophy could tell when we should cultivate and practise selfishness, when anti-selfishness, then the world should have a new philosophy. But it can tell no such thing

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must be left to the promptings of a refined, educated, and
ous nature. Mrs. Mason was no philosopher, but she was
—a Christian and a woman.

adding that all philosophy is, and ever must be, from the
ed capacity of man, false, futile, and deceptive, we pro-
ere long, to write a treatise on Moral Pathology, which
treat of moral symptoms, circumstances, and exigencies;
ttempt to direct human conduct by unbending rules, and
tri speculation. Meanwhile, we like to subject our propo-
sals to public criticism, "*spargere voces inter vulgus*," for
believe in the maxim: *vox populi, vox Dei*.

proceed with the Brents; we find the following in the
before us:

a narrative of the Indian and civil wars, in Virginia, in the years 1666
1675, Col. Brent is again mentioned. While he, Bacon, was sedulously
ing this affair, one Capt. Potter arrived in post haste from Rappahannock,
ews that Col. Brent was advancing fast upon him, with a resolution to
im, at the head of 1,000 men; what horse, what foot, if he durst stay the
moment? This man being ready, and eager to fight, the account goes
state, that Bacon had not marched more than two or three days' journey,
ose short ones, too, when he heard that Brent's men (not soldiers) were all
ay, and left him to shift for himself. For they having heard that Bacon
at the Governor out of the town, they began to be afraid, if they should
within his reach, that he might beat them out of their lives, and so resolved
come near him.

1. Brent was mightily astonished at the departure of his followers, saying
ey had forsaken the stoutest man, and ruined the finest estate in Virginia,
was, by their cowardice or defections, exposed to the mercy of the Baco-

But they being (as they thought) more obliged to look after their own
ns and lives, than to take note either as to his valor or estate, or *their own*
were not to be wrought upon by anything he could do or say, contrary to
own fancies.

his was Giles Brent, of the elder, or Richland branch. We presume he
ow removed to Richland, and the estate spoken of above, lay about the
.. He sold land near there, about this time, to George Brent, of Wood-
who must then have very recently settled in Virginia. Ten years there-
George Brent, and others, obtained a grant from King James II., of thirty
nd acres of land about Brentsville, in Prince William. This tract was,
listant from all settlements."

aving our American hero, Giles Brent, to curse his fill at
oldiers, who would not march through Coventry, to be
d for powder," or "fill a ditch" at Shrewsbury, we take
madcap English ancestor of his, whose quixotic feats
performed in an age when feudal barons were more tur-
it, and less civilized than frontier colonels.

acted from *Vallase Caulanium, or Kent Surveyed and Illustrated, by Thomas
Phillipsett, Esq.*:

ie first that I find to be proprietor of Kensing, in the hundred of Cold-
was Fulcoatus de Brent, and he is mentioned in the Red Book, kept in the
pier, to have held it in the reign of Henry II. and was Castellan, likewise,
sing Castle—a place, then, of important concern; but its skeleton, now, is

shrunk into such a desolate and ruined mass of rubbish, that now it would be as difficult to trace it out, or find it, as it was formerly to conquer it. And those wild disorders and sallies, arising from those boilings and evaporations which were cast out by the calentures of youth, rather than from any vicious habit contracted from several acts of excess, and rivetted into his soul, yet, it seems, those excursions of his did so disquiet Henry III. that he made the forfeiture of his estate here pay the fine of his vanities. Indeed, that name, his misfortunes, rather than his treasons, seem to challenge—page 200.

"Tunbridge—In the year 1215, Falcatus de Brent, during the military contests King John had with his nobility, by force, wrung this Castle (Tunbridge) from the hands of the Earl of Gloucester, and maintained it for some time, with signal evidences of magnanimity to the King's behoof and use.—Page 344."

We find more about Falcatus, but will not tire the reader by quoting it.

In the reigns of Charles I. and Charles II. we find many proceedings in Parliament against various members of this Brent family, all of which seem to have arisen from unfounded suspicions, originating in the fact that they were Catholics. These proceedings were but part of that religious persecution which lasted for more than a century, in England, and was equally distinguished for the display of gross credulity, coward fear, and sanguinary cruelty. The brutal Jeffries was a representative and exponent of the men of his day, and deserves no more censure than the coward mob he but served.

We have no regular genealogy or other account of the Richland Brents, in the Family Book. They are numerous; all respectable, and some have been distinguished. We can say little about them of our own knowledge, for we are not personally acquainted with an individual of the name. Two were United States Senators—Richard Brent, deceased, of Virginia, and a gentleman of the name from Louisiana. Richard Brent was, at one time, the leader of the Republican or Democratic party in Congress. When Fisher Ames, of the Federal party, made his celebrated speech in favor of Jay's Treaty, the Democrats, fearing its effect, moved and carried an adjournment, held a caucus at night, and selected Richard Brent to reply to it. He was then in the lower house of Congress.

We have arrived so near our own times that it would be tedious, and not very delicate, perhaps, to proceed further with minute details of the Brent genealogy.

The Woodstock branch have intermarried with very many highly respectable families in Maryland, Virginia, New-York, and other States of the Union. They have filled many public offices, with fidelity and ability, and have been distinguished in the learned professions. They are connected by blood, or intermarriage, with the Carrolls, Calverts, Johnsons, Waltons,

ANCIENT FAMILIES OF VIRGINIA, MARYLAND, ETC.

ers, Sweenys, Youngs, Forests, Diggs, Neales, etc., etc., Maryland, and the Masons (the distinguished George Mason of Gunston, married a Miss Brent, of Woodstock), Lees, Dams, Douglasses, Fitzhughs, Richland Brents, etc., of Virginia; also, the Livingstons and Backusses, of New-York. These are but a part of the many connections of this numerous family.*

We find, in the Family Book, the original letter of Lord Baltimore, congratulating the first George Brent, of Woodstock, on his intermarriage with a daughter of Lady Baltimore. We give it entire, as illustrative of the manners and letter of the age in which it was written :

These to Capt. George Brent, in Virginia :

" LONDON, 8th Decr, 1687.

I acknowledge my receipt of yr obliging letter, and do verily, hartly desire to much joye and happiness with my wife's daughter, whom (I understand) ye lately married ; I assure yo, I should esteeme it an advantage to me, of great credit to Maryld, would yr affairs in Virga dispense with yr being in that Province. But this happiness I cannot hope for, tho I will not be of obtaining my desire in this particular, since wee live in an age in which stranger things have happened. I must, indeed, own there is in this wish, a great mixture of Interest, as well as of respect, and value that I have in you, which, tho I know to be no very good complement, may yet prove a strong argument of my desires, of serving you, when the advantages will be much

Carroll and Brent families have been intermarrying for centuries, especially the Wood-Brents; so that some notice of the Carrolls is appropriate, in giving an account of the history of the former family.

Carrolls were among the earliest, wealthiest, and most respectable settlers of Maryland. They are an Irish family. The following letter, which I find among the Brent papers, throws some light on their history; yet the writer seems to give a very partial account, and confines himself, chiefly, to his father's branch, who were not, it appears, the first of the name removed to Maryland :

Extract of a letter written by Daniel Carroll, Esq., of Rock Creek, to Mr. James Carroll, and, dated,

" UPPER MARLBORO', Maryland, December 20th, 1782.

As you express a particular desire of having a particular account of your relations in this part of the world, the following may be agreeable to you :—My father died in the year 1681, and left six children, viz. : myself, Anne, John, E. W., Mary, and Betsy. He left an estate amounting in value, to between £4000 and £5000. Some time after, I married a young lady of our name, E. W. Carroll, to whom I was contracted before my father's death. The estate was £3,000 in money. I had been returned two years before, from Flanders, where my father had sent me for my education, and had been there six years. I have a son named Daniel, now ten years old, and a daughter named Mary, about eight years old. The lady is a daughter of Daniel Carroll, son of Charles Carroll, Esq., of Carrollton, who came from Ireland, and settled in this country. His ability and prudent conduct, procured him some of the best offices under the government, for then the Roman Catholics were entitled to hold offices in the Province. By this means, his knowledge of the law, and by taking up large tracts of land, which have since increased in value more than 100 per cent., he made a very large estate. Two of his sons only survived, out of a great many children—Charles and Daniel. My wife's father, who died in the year 1734, and left three children, Charles, E. W. (my wife), and Mary. Charles inherits about £600 per annum, will not probably marry, and is married to one Mr. Ignatius Digges. Charles Carroll, Esq., eldest brother to my father, is living, and is worth about £100,000, and second richest man in our Province. His only son, named Charles, who has had a very liberal education, and now finishing his studies in London. In case of his death, that estate is left to my son Daniel, by Charles Carroll, Esq. My eldest sister, Anne, is well married, to one Robert Brent, in Virginia, a province to the northward of this, divided by the Potomac; he lives about 60 miles from us. They have a son, named George. My brother, John, was sent abroad for his education, on my return, and likewise, my second sister, is married very well, to one William Brent, of Virginia. My eldest sister; she has one girl. My sisters, Mary and Betsy, are unmarried, and live with my mother, who is very well.

As to account of your friends, I hope, will be satisfactory to you."

my own. But I will not, any longer, insist on this subject, leaste I appeare to be much selfe interested, and so not fitt to be believed at the same time that, I assure you, I am, with respect and kindness,

"Your mos faithful humble servant,

"C. BALTEMORE.

"My service to yr Bedfellow."

One of the daughters of Hon. Charles Carroll of Carrollton, married the distinguished jurist, Robert Goodloe Harpin, of Baltimore. He visited Europe, and carried with him his wife's nieces, the Misses Caton and Mrs. Patterson, grandchildren of Dr. Charles Carroll. There one of the Misses Caton married Col. Harney, aid to the Duke of Wellington, and after his death, the Marquis Caermarthen; another married Lord King, and Mrs. Patterson married Marquis Wellesley, brother of Wellington. Her first husband, Patterson, was uncle to Madame Jerome Bonaparte.

"*Finis coronat opus.*" We will conclude with an extract from the funeral sermon preached by Rev. John Carroll, afterward Archbishop of Baltimore, on the occasion of the death of the first George Brent, of Woodstock, Virginia, the correspondent and connection of Lord Baltimore, and land agent for Lord Fairfax and Lady Culpepper:

"God provideth for him that sheweth favor; He remembereth him afterward, and in the time of his fall he shall find a sure stay." Ecclesiastes, iii. 24.

"We are assembled to day, dear Christians, not merely, I presume, to make an outward and ceremonious profession of our regard for the deceased, but with an inward and truly reverential respect for those virtues which adorned his character. We are come hither, that, by paying this last public tribute of friendship to his memory, we may give authentic testimony of our approbation of the many moral virtues that shone forth in his life and actions; for one of the greatest encouragements to be good ourselves, and to promote goodness in others, is to honor their memory who, in the general tenor of their conduct, paid a conscientious regard to the law of their Maker, and humbly and speedily besought his pardon whenever, through human frailty, they swerved from any part of their duty. Besides these motives of attendance, common to us all, we who are joined to him in the profession of the same faith, are come to supplicate for him at the throne of Mercy, and earnestly to entreat the Divine goodness, with the same fervor that the great St. Augustin did, at the death of his holy mother, Monica, that his soul, without any let or hinderance, may be instantly admitted to the joys of Paradise, and the everlasting possession of his Maker and his God. When, with these sentiments, we discharge the last funeral duties to departed Christians, we give that evidence of our belief in a future resurrection, which the great Apostle, St. Paul, considers as a distinguishing mark of our following Christ: 'I would not have you be ignorant,' says he to his ignorant brethren, 'concerning those who are asleep, that you be not sad, as other who have no hope; for if we believe that Jesus died and rose again, even so, them also who sleep in Jesus, will God also bring with him.' 1 Thess. iv. If, according to these words of the Apostle, the very profession of Christianity does not leave us without some grounds of hope, how much will this hope be strengthened, when the profession of it is accompanied by the virtues becoming so holy a vocation, or when the Christian, long before death, revolving his past years in an humble and penitential spirit, implores a God of mercy for pardon and forgiveness for the sins and ignorances of his youth, and seeks, according to the direction of the Holy Ghost, to redeem by

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works, his past iniquities. The motives, therefore, of Christian confidence are those that encourage us to hope for salvation to ourselves and for others, in the first place, a careful and religious practice of Christian virtue, and, in the second place, since we are all more or less liable to depart from the perfection of God's law, a timely, an humble, a fervent recourse to God's mercy, through the means of penance and repentance. In the first place, therefore, what are those virtues, on the practice of which the hopes of our own, or of the salvation of others, are particularly grounded? I am enabled, by the express declaration of Christ and of his Apostles, to answer the question without any difficulty. It is that virtue which, more than any other, gives this comfortable assurance for charity is the first and greatest commandment. 'By this,' says Jesus Christ, 'all men shall know that ye are my disciples, if you love one another,' according to the Apostle, charity is the fulfilling of the law. Besides these many other testimonies of Holy Writ, in commendation of the excellency and prerogatives of charity in general, that particular species of it which expresses our benevolence to our fellow-creatures, which prompts us to relieve their necessities, to condescend to their petitions, to be deaf to the calls of our own necessities that we may remove the necessities of others, to present their wants, to prevent ourselves to be injured, rather than cause trouble and distress to needy persons, I say, this species of charity affords us a sure and infallible assurance of eternal life with mercy, and consequently of salvation hereafter, agreeably to the words of Jesus Christ, 'Blessed are the merciful, for they shall obtain life.' Ah! dear Christians, how amiable is virtue, when we behold it exercised in these charitable employments! Can we wonder that it should incline the Father of God to open the treasures of his mercy on the benevolent man? If he will not let even so much as a cup of water given in his name, and for his sake, unrewarded, shall we doubt the pouring forth of the richness of his goodness, and of his opening the glorious mansions of heaven to, those who choose to forego their just rights, and deprive themselves of many comforts and enjoyments of life, than give pain or uneasiness to their fellow-creatures; who, restraining themselves far within the bounds of moderation, are anxious not to give the least shadow of disquiet or discontent to others; who do not, but prevent the solicitations of the necessitous, by timely and anticipatory relief. Yes, Christians, when we see these virtues exercised, there we have a sure foundation for our hope; we have the infallible word of Jesus Christ to rest our hope upon. If our life be spent in the exercise of these virtues we shall derive more comfort from this remembrance in our last moments, from all the splendor or profession of pleasure which our ambition and sensuality can ever suggest to our imagination. Had the deceased, whose funeral we are now going to perform, tilled in the road of ambition, or devoted his life to the gratification of sensuality, what comfort, or rather, what uneasiness, would he not have felt on his passage to eternity; what would all those self-indulgences have now availed him? or what hope would they have ministered to his sorrowing friends, of his eternal welfare? But God's gracious mercies, and the docility of heart in the deceased to the call of God, have not put us in this unhappy situation. Witness of his active and universal benevolence, we presume to remind the Divine goodness of the assurance given us by the inspired wisdom, and call with confidence upon God to fulfil his promises according to the words of our text, 'God provideth for him that sheweth favor; he rewardeth him afterward, and in the time of his fall he shall find a sure

ART. II.—THE AFRICAN EL DORADO.

Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa; including a Sketch of Sixteen Years' Residence in the Interior of Africa, &c. By DAVID LIVINGSTONE, LL. D., D. C. L., &c., &c. New-York: Harper & Brothers.

Travels and Discoveries in North and Central Africa. Being a Journal of an Expedition undertaken under the auspices of Her Britannic Majesty's Government, in the Years 1849-'55. By HENRY BARTH, Ph. D., D. C. L., &c., &c. New-York: Harper & Brothers.

The subject of slavery has occupied a very prominent place in the history of our country, for about one hundred years. In fact, from the time of the first introduction of African slaves by the Dutch, about the year 1620, there has been more or less clamor about them, and more or less misplaced sympathy has been felt and nursed by men and women in our country, for them and their mis-called *degraded* condition. As the Dutch were once the most active in purchasing, transporting, and selling the Africans into bondage, it is probably a providential dispensation the sending of Dr. Barth (a German), on his expedition to open a way for the melioration of the condition of the sable sons of Africa.

We find, at the time of the outbreak of our Revolutionary struggle, that Mr. Jefferson embodied a clause in the Declaration of Independence, setting forth that the King of England, and his European subjects, had been very active in bringing Africans to America, and forcing them upon the colonies, contrary to their wishes. The following is the expunged clause of the Declaration:

"He has waged cruel war against human nature itself, violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty, in the persons of a distant people, who never offended him, captivating and carrying them into slavery in another hemisphere, or to incur miserable death in their transportation thither. This piratical warfare, the opprobrium of infidel powers, is the warfare of the *Christian King* of Great Britain. Determined to keep open a market where men should be bought and sold, he has prostituted his negative for suppressing every legislative attempt to prohibit or restrain this execrable commerce. And that this assemblage of horrors might want no fact of distinguished dye, he is now inciting those very people to rise in arms among us, and to purchase that liberty, of which he has deprived them, by murdering the people upon whom he obtruded them: thus paying off former crimes committed against the liberties of one people, with crimes which he urges them to commit against the *lives* of another."

That was written eighty-three years ago, and yet I doubt if any modern abolitionist can produce anything stronger in opposition to the traffic in slaves. Those of our Northern, saintly brethren, who turn up their sanctimonious eyes, and raise their pure (?) hands with holy horror, at the awful sin of *slavery*, and denounce eternal perdition upon Southerners,

you here see what a Southern slaveholder thought and wrote the inception of our nationality, eighty-three years ago. But, despite this severe rebuke, despite the awful sin, and general disapprobation of this "*piratical warfare*," still English and other Europeans, together with our Northern patriots, carried on the slave-trade for thirty-two years longer, *if no more*, until it was stopped by an act of our own Congress, at a time *when the slaveholding power of that body was largely in the majority*.

But although Mr. Jefferson thought the slave-trade a great wrong, and deplored its existence, still he admitted that it was doubt permitted to go on, and intended by the Almighty for the purpose of ameliorating the condition of the degraded race to which they belonged. For that great man thought that things would be so overruled that the negroes who were brought to America in a state of benighted heathenism, would be gradually improved, educated, enlightened, and christianized, and then, in the course of time, they (or their descendants) would be transported back to Africa, and through its agency and instrumentality the Christian religion, arts, literature, would be diffused throughout that dark and desolate land. This idea has been so often repeated in the few years that it has lost its freshness, its interest, and value; but when we look at it calmly and seriously we must acknowledge its greatness, and that it is evidence of a seeing mind, as well as proof of his benignity and philanthropy. This idea has been acted on by philanthropic slaveholders, in all the Southern States, for several years. It is the damnable idea upon which rests and operates the Colonization Society, through whose agency thousands of negroes, who are doing well here in the Southern States, are torn away from their native country, friends, and kindred, and sent to "fric's burning sands" to drag out a miserable existence.

At first glance this scheme of Colonization seems so feasible, so plausible, so reliable, so good, so efficient, so perfectly certain of complete success, that he who should doubt it would be anathematized. But what are the facts? What results shown by figures? and figures, we know, will not lie. Reports published to the world, by friends and patrons of this laudable undertaking, we find that money contributed for the purpose of its sustentation is squandered, to say the least of it, by swindling officials; while those who should reap the benefits of these misapplied bounties, never enjoy any good from the munificence of misguided friends. We may well say then, and ask, Is the Republic of Liberia doing any

good? Is it really an independent republic? Is it self-sustaining?

What are the facts? Why, the enlightened, the educated, the converted and Christianized negroes, who emigrate to Africa, soon forget their learning, soon apostatize from the faith once delivered to the saints, soon lose the odor of sanctity breathed upon them in America, turn again like the dog to his vomit, or the sow that was washed to her wallowing in the mire; turn again to the beggarly elements of the world; succumb to the allurements of the world, the flesh, and the devil; throw aside Christianity, and embrace Mohammedanism or idolatry, bowing down to stocks and stones, the workmanship of their own hands, denying the Lord that bought them, and putting him to an open shame.

Has Liberia done any good? Is it a self-sustaining power? Is it a land of tropical warmth and of perennial verdure; a land flowing with milk and honey, wine and oil; a land where corn, in all its varieties, abounds and flourishes in almost perpetual luxuriance—where the fig, the orange, the date, the almond, the cocoa, the vine, and the olive, the bread-fruit-tree, together with other nutritious vegetables, grow spontaneously and promiscuously—where the cotton plant, the sorghum, the rapeseed, the rice, and other life-sustaining and commercial products, are found in the valleys and on the hill sides; a land where the fertile plains and boundless prairies afford perennial pasturage for asses, horses, cows, giraffes, camels, rhinoceros, elands, antelopes, and elephants; a land where the Giver of all good has showered down blessings innumerable—and yet with all this boundless and ceaseless supply, the poor creatures are absolutely needing bread and meat, and are dependent upon our bounty and munificence for their daily food! Surrounded as they are with every advantage of soil, productions, and climate, they are yet too lazy to make the slightest exertion to produce enough to live upon; absolutely sit there with their hands folded, and wait till ships can traverse the ocean and carry them something to eat. They draft not only on us, but also on the English nation for subsidies. So then, fear, that Liberia has done no good, is doing no good, and never will do any.

If these things occur in the green tree, what may we expect in the dry? Or, in other words, if these negroes who are now fresh from our shores, thoroughly versed in husbandry and various handicrafts, are yet unwilling to put their knowledge and skill to practical and profitable use, what may be expected of a succeeding generation? Is it probable or presumable?

children will learn industry from idle, unthrifty parents? Will the next generation improve upon the present? By no means, but the reverse.

It is amusing to hear so much said, of late years, about the equality of races, and of the intellectual powers of the negroes being as good as those of the whites, and only wanting cultivation and development. The Colonization Society do not put forward any facts to prove this baseless assumption. The results of upward of seventy years of liberty and mental training in sundry of the Northern States adduce no proof of this notion. Dr. Livingstone in one place says: "Their [the Africans'] splendid physical development and form of skull show that, but for the black skin and woolly hair, they would rank among the foremost Europeans." But, alas! he wrote more than that. Only a few pages further on, in the same volume, he utters the following, so we may say: "Look at this picture, then on that." "The acme of respectability among the Bechuanas [Africans] is the possession of cattle and a waggon. It is remarkable that, though these latter require frequent repairs, none of the Bechuanas have ever learned to mend them. Forges and tools have been at their disposal, and teachers willing to aid them, but, beyond *pulling either a camp-stool*, no effort has ever been made to acquire knowledge of the trades. They observe most carefully a missionary at work until they understand whether a tire is welded or not, and then pronounce upon its merits with great emphasis, but there their ambition rests satisfied." There is the honest confession of a friend of Africans, who has spent sixteen years of his life there trying to teach them, and he is still there at his useless work. Those who know negroes need comment on the above quotation. It is a fair portraiture of the race. They are a low, degraded race; they are servants of servants, and will be to the end of time. It has been contended that the *slave-trade* has degraded and brutalized the negro race in their own country, and that explorations were made into the interior of Africa, tribes and nations would be found who are pure and sinless; who in their primal integrity are

"Guiltless of their country's blood,"

of enslaving their brethren.

Philanthropists contend if missionaries could penetrate to the retired haunts, the peaceful shades, the lovely glades, the fishing bowers of these blessed children of the sun, that they would find such amity, concord and rural felicity, as

would put even proud Albion to the blush and make her hide her diminished head. The British Government has been at considerable expense, for a number of years, in fitting out travellers and exploring parties, and establishing missions in the very heart of Africa, for the purpose of extending her mercantile operations, opening outlets for her manufactures, and discovering some other *cotton-growing* region; and also for the purpose of suppressing the *slave-trade*, and finding the long sought Utopia which they think is hidden there.

This brings us to the consideration of the volumes now before us; but I must say, in the outset, that neither Dr. Livingstone nor Dr. Barth has yet found the happy land, although both have been in search of it, in different latitudes and longitudes, for nearly twenty years.

Dr. Livingstone is a Scotchman of much learning, great philanthropy, pure religion, and indomitable energy and perseverance. It is singular that Scotchmen have been the most successful travellers and explorers in Africa. Dr. L. went to Africa with much pleasure; it was to him a labor of love. He felt much interest in and sympathy for the benighted race, and willingly embarked in his work as a messenger and missionary to them. He prepared himself, first by studying medicine and kindred branches of science, so as to be fully qualified to report on the geography, geology, fauna and flora, together with the diseases peculiar to the country, and at the same time be able to cure them of "the ills which flesh is heir to."

He married, in Africa, the daughter of the Rev. Mr. Moffat, who has been a missionary there for upward of forty years, who, together with all his family, is enlisted, soul and body, in promoting the welfare of the natives, and feels the deepest sympathy for those sable sons of Adam. They look with favorable eyes on these people. They overlook numerous faults, sins, and errors; they look at the brightest side of their conduct, and always make the most favorable reports possible of their manners, habits, customs, &c.

Livingstone traversed Africa from the Cape of Good Hope, in latitude 34° south, up to Lake Ngami, the Chobe and Zambesi rivers, about latitude 14° south, and thence westward to Loanda, on the Atlantic coast, and back again, entirely across the continent, to the mouth of the Zambesi river at Quillimane, where it empties into the Indian ocean, or from longitude 12° west, to longitude 37° west; and all that partly on foot and partly on the backs of oxen, or in a dugout.

His book is certainly one of the most interesting ever writ-

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and lays open to the world a plain narrative of the degraded races in that, heretofore, unknown region. Did he find slaves and slavery there? Yes. Did he find Utopia?

r. Henry Barth is a learned German, who is a votary of peace, a philanthropist, and a very resolute, though a very patient man, as the result will show. But in the books under consideration everything is "toned down" as much as the "hideous mien" of the "monster" will admit of; but Southern reader some of the trials, abuses, and sufferings endured by the travellers, make the blood boil.

r. Barth was also employed by the British Government, began his travels at Tripoli, in company with, and under guidance of, a Mr. Richardson, who, however, died in the second year of their tour. Another companion, Mr. Overweg, died a short time after Richardson, which left him there alone in the central part of Africa, not far from Timbuctoo. He explored over a tract of country of twenty-four degrees extent, from north to south, and twenty degrees from east to west in the broadest part of the continent.

Starting from Tripoli in the north, we proceed from the settlements of the Arabs and the Berber, the poor remnants of the vast empires of the middle ages, to a country dotted with splendid ruins from the period of Roman dominion, through the wild roving hordes of the Tawarek, to the negro and half negro tribes, and to the very border of the South African nations. In the region of Central Africa there exists not one and the same stock as in South Africa, but the greatest diversity of tribes, or rather nations, prevails, with idioms entirely distinct. The great and momentous struggle between Islamism and Paganism is continually going on, causing every day the most painful results, while miseries arising from slavery and the slave-trade are here revealed in their repulsive features." *

The above epitome is taken from the preface, and here we see slavery and the slave-trade in the midst of Central Africa, where, in some places, the Doctor says, he was the only white man who had ever been there.

Throughout the large volumes of these two travellers, the subject of slavery occupies a conspicuous place; they deplore the condition of the people; praise them for the least scintillation of feeling or sentiment of religion or patriotism, and look forward with hopefulness to a brighter day for "down-trodden Africa." If Africa is down-trodden, it would be well to show who is guilty of the tyranny. Under whose heel is she writhing? Is she subject to any power of Europe, Asia, or America? Have the United States any power or dominion in Africa? Who has vice-royalties there?

* Barth, vol. 1., p. 15, preface.

It is the strangest thing in the world to see how foolish people will make themselves about negroes! Somehow, simply because they have woolly heads, black skins, and blacker hearts, they elicit more sympathy than any other race of people, no matter how much they may be "down-trodden!" Every European government is exclaiming, "poor benighted Africa;" "poor oppressed Africa;" "poor down-trodden Africa;" "poor *enslaved* Africa!" Again, we would ask these sympathizers, when was Africa, or when were Africans, in better condition, or more enlightened, than now? When were they celebrated for their enlightenment, their arts, their sciences, their poets, orators, or divines? Is she any more of a slave-market now than she was when Joseph the son of Jacob was sold by his brothers to slave-traders, who were on their way down into Egypt? Has she not been in the slave-trade from the remotest antiquity? Can you point to any time in history when she did not barter and sell and enslave her sons and daughters either there, on their native soil, or to any outside nation who would take them?

But we wander from the consideration of the volumes before us, and will now proceed to anatomize them.

In the work of Dr. Livingstone, the word *slave* occurs seventy-three times, without enumerating the synonymous word *servant*, which occurs almost as frequently. The word *slave-trade* is mentioned twenty-two times, while there are numerous other words and modes of expression conveying the same idea which have not been noted. The word *slavery* is repeated thirteen times, and *slave-market* five times. All these words or expressions are used in speaking of the domestic concerns of the country, and of the families and tribes where he went.

In the same way Dr. Barth has used the word *slave*, in his two volumes, two hundred and eleven times; *slavery* thirty-two times; *slave-trade* thirty-three times; *slave-hunter* ten times; *slave-caravan* five times; *slave-village* seven times.

We will now proceed to quote from the works of these gentlemen a few passages, for the purpose of showing what kind of people the Africans are at home, in their own country; and those who have seen the negroes in America, where they are represented as groaning in their bondage, can compare and contrast the two peoples, and judge which is the best, or best off.

The reader will bear in mind that Dr. Livingstone was a minister and a missionary, and that he consequently preached to the natives, and endeavored to convert them to Christianity. Here are some remarks about one of his disciples:

"Sechele continued to make a consistent profession for about three years, and perceiving at last some of the difficulties of his case, and also feeling compassion for the poor women, who were by far the best of our scholars, I had no more than to say that he should be in any hurry to make a full profession by baptism, and letting away all his wives but one. His principal wife, too, was about the most unlikely subject in the tribe ever to become anything else than an out-and-out greyey disciple of the old school. She has since become greatly altered, I fear, for the better; but again and again have I seen Sechele *send her out of church to put her gown on*, and away she would go with her lips shut out, the very picture of unutterable disgust at his new-fangled notions."^o

In the course of the book the Doctor very often, in speaking of the women, calls them *ladies*, and this one is a sample of them. Another quotation illustrative of their misbehavior in meeting:"

"The Bakalahari, who live at Mollatsa wells, have always been very friendly to us, and listen attentively to instruction conveyed to them in their own tongue. It is, however, difficult to give an idea to a European of the little effect teaching produces, because no one can realize the *degradation* to which their minds have been sunk by centuries of barbarism and hard struggling for the necessities of life: like most others, they listen with respect and attention, but when we kneel down and address an unseen Being, the position and the act often appear to them so ridiculous, that they cannot refrain from *bursting into uncontrollable laughter*. I was once present when a missionary attempted to sing among a wild heathen tribe of Bechuanas, who had no music in their composition. The effect on the risible faculties of the audience was such, that the tears actually ran down their cheeks. If asked, then, what effect the preaching of the Gospel has at the commencement on such individuals, I am unable to say."[†]

The reader might like to hear more on this subject; if so, we give the following:

"At our public religious services in the Kotla, the Makololo women always shaved with decorum from the first, except at the conclusion of the prayer. Then all knelt down, many of those who had children, in following the example of the rest, bent over their little ones; the children, in terror of being crushed to death, set up a simultaneous yell, which so tickled the whole assembly, there was often a subdued titter, to be turned into a hearty laugh as soon as they said Amen. This was not so difficult to overcome in them as similar peccadilloes were, in the case of the women further south. Long after we had settled at Mahotsa, when preaching on the most solemn subjects, a woman might be observed to look round and, seeing a neighbor seated on her dress, give her a nudge with the elbow to make her move off; the other would return it with interest, and perhaps the remark, 'Take the nasty thing away, will you?' Then we, three or four would begin to hustle the first offenders, and the men to *surround them all* by way of enforcing silence."[‡]

"They were always very attentive to preaching, and Morianttsane, in order, as we thought, to please me, on one occasion rose up in the middle of the discourse and hurled his staff at the heads of some young fellows whom he saw working with a skin instead of listening."[§]

On another occasion a party of men who had accompanied him on his trip to and from Loanda, on the coast, decked themselves in their Sunday's best, consisting of white shirts and red caps, which the Doctor says gave them rather a dash-

ing appearance—"They tried to walk like the soldiers they had seen at Loanda, and called themselves 'my braves.' During the service they all sat with their guns over their shoulders, and excited the unbounded admiration of the women and children."*

Having given some idea of the state of degradation on that point, let us now proceed to examine the condition and *status* of the women. It is with them in Africa as it is in all pagan countries, they are *the slaves* :

"Their instrument of culture is the hoe, and *their chief labor falls on the female portion of the community*. In this respect the Bechuana closely resemble the Caffres. The men engage in hunting, milk the cows, and have the entire control of the cattle; they prepare the skins, make the clothing [?] and in many respects may be considered a nation of tailors."†

"As I could, without much difficulty, keep them well supplied with meat, and wished them to remain, I proposed that they should bring their wives to get a hare, but they remarked that the women could always take care of themselves."‡

"The chief labor of hoeing, driving away birds, reaping, and winnowing, falls to the willing arms of the hard-working women; but as the men, as well as their wives, as already stated, always work, many have followed the advice of the missionaries, and now use plows and oxen instead of hoes."§

The foregoing extracts are taken from Dr. Livingstone; we now give some from Dr. Barth, on the same subject :

"He was a smart fellow, of light complexion and handsome countenance, but had lost one eye in a quarrel. He was armed with a long gun with a good English lock, of which he was very proud. He had when young seen the rais (Major), at Tawat, and knew something about Europeans, and chiefly Englishmen. Smart and active as this fellow was, he was so ungallant as to oblige his young male slave, who was at once his mistress, cook, and servant, to walk the whole day on foot, while he generally rode."||

"On issuing from the gate of the city of Agades, I was struck with the desolate character of the country on this side of the town, though it was enlivened by women and slaves going to fetch water from the principal well (which is distant about half a mile from the gate), all the water inside the town being of a bad quality."¶

"As for the women of Tasawa, their dress consists almost entirely of a large cotton cloth, also of dark color, fastened under or above the breasts; the only ornament of the latter, in general consisting of some strings of glass beads worn around the neck. The women are tolerably handsome and have pleasant features; but they are worn out by excessive domestic labor, and their growth never attains full and vigorous proportions. They do not bestow so much care upon their hair as the Fellani."**

"A poor woman carrying a load on her head and leading a pair of goats, had attached herself to our party in Gazawa; and though she had lost her goats in the bustle of the previous afternoon, she continued her journey cheerfully and with resignation."††

"When leaving the south side of Kusada, we were joined by a troop of women very heavily laden, each carrying on the head from six to ten enormous calabashes filled with various articles; but they did not prove to be agreeable company; for not being able to walk steadily for any length of time with their loads, they stopped every few minutes, and then went on at a running pace till they were

* Page 529.

† Barth, vol. i., p. 211.

‡ Page 179.

§ Barth, vol. i., p. 324.

|| Barth, vol. i., p. 452.

¶ Page 190.

** Barth, vol. i., p. 440.

†† Page 210.

igned again to halt; so that they came frequently in collision, either with my camel or with the bullock. It is really incredible what loads the native women of the inland can carry on their heads, but I think no other tribe is equal in this respect to the Tapua."*

In a graphic description of what he saw in the city of Kano, the following is introduced:

'The matron, in a clean, black cotton gown wound round her waist, her hair tightly dressed in chokoli, busy preparing the meal for her absent husband, or spinning cotton, and at the same time urging the female slaves to pound the corn; children, naked and merry, playing about in the sand," &c.†
'The blacksmith was seen busy at his simple work, making new hoes for the approaching season; the weaver was sitting at his loom; several were making mats of reed; some women were carrying water from the wells—some spinning, cleaning the cotton, while others pounded corn for their daily consumption."‡
'The inhabitants of two or three small hamlets dragged on a miserable existence even during the drought which at present prevailed; and we met a large number of women and children who preferred fetching every night and morning their supply of this most essential element from a distance of several miles."§

Extracts like these might be continued, but these are enough to show the condition of women in Africa; and Southern slaveholders have no slaves who can at all be compared with these.

We now propose to give extracts, for the purpose of showing the licentiousness of the people in Africa. Dr. Barth says:

'I had also some interesting pagan instructors, among whom I will only mention Agid Burku, a very handsome youth, but who had undergone the horrid process of * * * *. The abolition of this practice in the Mohammedan world ought to be the first object of Christian governments and missionaries, not merely on account of the unnatural and desecrated state to which it reduces a human being, but on account of the dreadful character of the operation itself, which, in these countries at least, is the reason why scarcely one survives it. With extreme delight he dwelt upon the unconstrained nudity which his countrymen indulged, and with great *naïveté* described a custom of pagans, which is identical with a custom of the civilized Europeans, but is an abomination in the eyes of every Mohammedan."||

'The whole character of these people appeared very degraded. They were utterly devoid of the noble and manly appearance which the most careless observer cannot fail to admire, even in a Tarkî freebooter; and the relation between the sexes appeared in a worse light than one would expect in such a situation as this. However, we have ample testimony in ancient Arabian writers, that licentious manners have always prevailed among the Berber tribes on the border of the desert; and we found the same habits existing among the tribes of the Tagama, while not only Agades, but even the little village of Tintellust, is not without its courtesans. This is a very disheartening phenomenon to observe in so small a community, and in a locality where nature would seem peculiarly favorable to purity and simplicity of manners."¶

'Hannu spent his evenings with our friend the Emgedesiye lady, and was good enough to beg me to accompany him. This I declined, but gave him a full present to take to her. I had a fair sample of the state of morals in Agades the following day, when five or six girls and women came to pay me a visit in my house, and with much simplicity invited me to make merry with them, there being now, as they said, no longer reason for reserve, 'as the sultan was gone.' It was, indeed, rather amusing to see what conclusions they drew from the

* Barth, vol. i., p. 481.

† Barth, vol. ii., p. 483.

‡ Barth, vol. i., p. 497.

§ Barth, vol. ii., p. 48.

|| Barth, v. i. i., p. 564.

¶ Barth, vol. i., p. 210.

motto 'The master is away.' Two of them were tolerably pretty and well formed, with fine black hair hanging down in plaits or tresses, lively eyes, and very fair complexion. Their dress was decent and that of one of them even elegant, consisting of an under gown reaching from the neck to the ankles, and an upper one drawn over the head, both of white color. *their demeanor was very free, and I too clearly understood the caution requisite in a European who would pass through these countries unharmed and respected by the natives, to allow myself to be tempted by these wantons.* It would be better for a traveller in these regions, both for his own comfort and the respect felt for him by the natives, if he could take his wife with him; for these simple people do not understand how a man can live without a partner. The Western Tawarek, who in general are very rigorous in their manners, and quite unlike the Kelowi, had nothing to object against me except my being a bachelor. But as it is difficult to find a female companion for such journeys, and as by marrying a native he would expose himself to much trouble and incertainties on the score of religion, he will do best to maintain the greatest austere manner with regard to the other sex, *though he may thereby expose himself to a good deal of derision from some of the lighter hearted natives.* The ladies, *however, became so troublesome, that I thought it best to remain at home for a few days, and was thus enabled at the same time to note down the information which I had been able to pick up.*"

"The women (of Tagama) not only made the most advances, but, what is worse, they were offered even by the men, their brethren or husbands. Even those among the men whose behavior was least vile and revolting, did not cease to urge us. . . ."

"Farther on, a dashing Cyprian, *thoughtless, comfortless, and childless, but affecting merriment or forcing a wantonness, and heavily ornamented with numerous strings of beads round her neck, and hands fully dressed and bound with a shawl, her gown of various colors, loosely fastened under her breasts, and trailing in the sand.*"

ART. III.—THE ARCHIVE WAR OF TEXAS.

TEXAS has been the theatre of many wars. She has had her Fredonian war; her Revolutionary war with Mexico; her Indian war, yet unfinished, with Comanches, Wacos and other roving tribes; the rebellion at Nacogdoches; and among her many conflicts an Archive war, which deserves a place in the annals of those times when she flourished as an Independent Republic.

The Archive war commenced in March, A. D. 1842, at the city of Austin, then, as now, the seat of government. The Archives of the Republic were there deposited. Among them were all the land titles, including ancient grants emanating from viceroys of Spain in a past century; there, too, were treaties of amity between Texas and the European powers—England, France and Belgium; there, also, were the tattered banners of Santa Anna's proud battalions of Matamoras and Tamaulipas, borne as honorable trophies by the victorious Texans from the glorious field of San Jacinto; there was the

• Earth, vol. 1, p. 352.

† Earth, vol. 1, p. 408.

‡ Earth, vol. 1, p. 457.

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seal of the Republic and its great standard, with the Star on the tricolor, adopted as the significant emblem separate nationality.

Austin, at that time, was on the extreme frontier's verge. To the north by Waco, there were no settlements excepting at the falls of the Brazos, until the valley of Red River reached. The country in that direction, and westward to San Antonio to the Rio Grande, was in possession of the Indians, and they were all hostile. The seat of government, in accordance with the policy of President Lamar, who conducted a vigorous warfare against the Indians, and pursuant to an Act of Congress, was located at Austin, with a view to extend the frontier and give it additional protection. The place was then exposed to sudden incursions from the Indian or Indian enemy; but the Texans loved danger, and the first settlers of Austin and vicinity gladly took their position expecting conflicts with the common foe. After the fall of San Jacinto, Mexico, too weak to regain Texas, and proud to acknowledge her independence, maintained an attitude of sullen hostility, menacing invasion and carrying on latatory warfare.

On the 5th of March, A. D. 1842, Gen. Vasquez, with a Mexican force of about seven hundred men, cavalry and infantry, appeared before San Antonio and demanded its surrender. The Texan force, under Col. Jack Hays, mustering little more than one hundred men, after a consultation, decided to evacuate the place, and retired upon the Guadalupe. The Mexicans took possession of the town, and displayed their national flag from the church.

When the news reached Austin by express, that San Antonio was in possession of the Mexicans, Gen. Houston, who had elected Gen. Lamar as President, was absent, but several of his cabinet officers were there. Col. Geo. W. Hockley, an officer of San Jacinto, was then Secretary at War and Peace. It was commonly understood and expected that the city would be attacked, and immediate preparations were

made for its defence. By a skillful and rapid *detour*, the Mexican general, crossing the river above town, might have reached the city and taken up a commanding position near the old capitol. Knowing their exposed situation, the Texans voluntarily assembled and prepared for defence with slight means as they possessed. There was a rough barricade around the old capitol, which had been built to afford a rallying point for resistance in case of sudden attack, until the common foe could be repelled. At the arsenal there were

a number of pieces of artillery and sufficient ammunition, and in the city some stands of muskets.

At a public meeting hastily assembled, Col. Wm. N. Cazneau was elected by common consent commander of the city in case of attack, and Col. Thos. Wm. Ward (an experienced artillerist, distinguished at the siege of Bexar, where he lost his leg) was in the same manner appointed to take charge of the ordnance, and various duties were assigned to other persons. It being anticipated that the enemy designed to make an attack on Austin, expresses were dispatched to the citizens of Bastrop and to Col. Henry Jones, then commanding the regiment comprising Travis and Bastrop counties. Col. Jones was the same who led with signal bravery the right wing of the Texans at the battle of Plum Creek, where the Comanches met such a disastrous defeat—a prompt, experienced, chivalrous officer, possessing both military and civic ability. Meanwhile, measures went forward for defending the city. The ammunition was removed to the magazine in the old stockade, and cannon planted at some of its angles. The "Twin Sisters," those celebrated pieces of artillery that performed such a noble part at San Jacinto, were placed in position on the hill at the President's house, to command the approaches by the fords of the Colorado immediately above and below town. "El Dragon," a double fortified brass twelve-pounder, captured from the Mexicans, was planted near where the new capitol now stands, to guard the approach from the west and mountains. These dispositions appear to have been made with good military judgment. A company of volunteers was organized by Capt. Geo. M. Dolson, one of Deaf Smith's rangers, and then captain of minute-men. He was a gallant and efficient commander. In leading his men into action against the Comanches near Austin, he was shot through the body. The Indians were defeated, and the gallant captain recovered from a wound nearly fatal. Captain J. M. Daniels, who was by the side of Dolson in this action, and had high reputation as an officer, now commanded the Travis Guards, a volunteer independent corps. Both these companies, with full ranks, reported themselves under arms ready for action, and were stationed at suitable posts. Many of the most important public records were then placed in chests and buried in the ground for safety.

On the next morning Col. Jones arrived early in town, and soon after him the Bastrop troops, under Lieut. Col. Wallace, Captain Bartlett Sims and Captain Gillespie, together with Gen. Burleson, came in, and promptly took part in the meas-

ires for defending the city. The troops were then ordered to parade, and were reviewed by Gen. Burleson and Col. Jones, and found to muster more than four hundred men.

On the next day the Bastrop troops, with Gen. Burleson, marched on San Antonio, and the defence of the city was entrusted to the volunteer companies of Captains Dolson and Daniels, numbering about two hundred men. Thus stood matters at the capital. The Secretary at War and Marine and other government officers all concurring in the measures for defending the city. In a few days news arrived that the Mexican army had evacuated San Antonio and were retreating rapidly toward the Rio Grande.

On the reception of this intelligence, Col. Hockley, as Sergeant-at-War, posted an order stating that the advance and retreat of Gen. Vasques was a *ruse de guerre*, and there being no further necessity in his opinion for the troops to continue in active service, the companies at Austin were required to disarm, and deliver up their arms to the proper government officers. The issuance of this order caused much excitement among the citizens. It was believed to be the first step toward the removal of the seat of government, and subsequent events proved the correctness of this conjecture. A public meeting of the citizens was called, at which a committee of safety and vigilance was appointed, and resolutions passed, indicating explicitly a determination to resist the anticipated executive order for the removal of the archives.

A special committee was appointed to wait on Col. Hockley and request him to rescind his obnoxious order, but he declined to do it. Col. Jones then established his headquarters at an office adjacent to Maj. Bullock's hotel, and re-organized his regimental staff—the writer being attached to it. Capt. Dolson's company changed its position and took post on the road from Austin to Bastrop, on the east of the city, to prevent the removal of the archives in that direction, and the committee of safety and vigilance gave orders that no wagons should be permitted to pass downward, without inspection, in order to prevent the removal of the public records clandestinely.

As anticipated, the president issued an order dated March 8th, 1842, directing the removal of the archives to the city of Houston, and requiring the various civil officers of government to proceed there forthwith. He based this order on a clause in the constitution of the republic, which provided that the president and heads of departments shall keep their offices at the seat of government, unless removed by the permis-

sion of Congress, or unless, in cases of emergency in time of war, the public interest may require their removal."

The president, in his construction of the constitution, and in his views of the public interest in the alleged emergency, was supported by his cabinet, an able one, and by a strong party in the republic.

On our side it was asserted that no emergency requiring the removal existed, and we contended that we had the right to judge what the public interest required at the crisis. It was thought that a removal of the government officers and archives would be giving too great encouragement to the enemy, and might be considered an admission of weakness highly prejudicial to the public welfare. On this point we were at issue with the president, but unanimous in maintaining our position at every hazard. The officers at the heads of departments were notified that any effort to remove the archives, would be resisted by an armed force. Under orders from Col. Jones, his staff officers took possession of the quartermaster's department, the arsenal, the cannon and ammunition of the government, to be used in defence of our position. The cabinet officers of the president, and the clerks of the several departments, then withdrew from the city and repaired to Houston. Col. Ward, however, remained at the land office. One of the department chief clerks, on his departure, privately took with him in his pocket the great seal of the republic, and it served afterward to authenticate the proclamations and other executive documents during the term of Gen. Houston's administration. Thus, the city and archives remained in possession of the citizens, who had assumed their position in defiance of the executive; but pledging themselves, their lives and fortunes, to the public, that they would preserve the public records from injury by the enemy. The measures adopted, to prevent any removal of the archives, were effectual and stringent. Among many other orders issued, the following may give an idea of the proceedings. (See Yoakum's *History of Texas*.)

"REGIMENTAL ORDERS, March 19th, 1842.

"MR. GEORGE NOESSEL :

"SIR : In pursuance with orders from headquarters, dated 18th inst, you are hereby ordered to stop any wagon running down the river, except those under a French passport.

"You will examine all trunks, unless the teamster will swear that he saw the same loaded, or the contents of the same, &c.

"W. S. WALLACE, Lieutenant-Colonel

"4th Regiment Texas Militia."

Mons. De Saligny, the French Minister, was then removing his official archives.

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uring the time that an attack was expected on Austin, the rich national flag was hoisted on his residence. After the action of these measures, no immediate efforts were made to have the government officers to remove the archives.

The people of Bastrop county at a public meeting passed resolutions sustaining the action of the citizens of Travis county, and it was understood that they were likewise sustained by a majority of Fayette county.

During the remainder of the spring and summer, the number of citizens in Austin diminished rapidly; the business of the city having almost entirely ceased. Criminating and reprimating messages passed between the executive at Houston and the colonel commanding at Austin. By the president we were viewed as disorganizers in a state of sedition; and it was thought that it was in contemplation to send the militia of Washington and Montgomery, then the mammoth county of the Republic, to Austin, and take away the archives by force. On our side, we answered the reported menace with defiance, reiterated that the archives were in a secure position, and that the executive and his officers might remain in safety at the seat of government, relying confidently on the support of a majority of the people.

The Indians, whose depredations had never ceased, still continued during the summer to prowl around the city. Judge Jones and another man at his residence north of Austin, were killed by a party of Indians who came to his house, pretending to be friendly. An infant in the arms of its mother, who first suspected that the Indians were hostile, was severely wounded by an arrow, as she retreated within the house. The judge's son, a young lad, was seized as a prisoner, and rode on horseback behind a chief, and the party then rode on.

The bodies of the slaughtered men were interred in one grave, in the public cemetery. More than three years elapsed before the fate of the unfortunate youth was known. It was stated by Jim Shaw, the Delaware interpreter, that after remaining some time with the Comanches, the lad took a flight at night and fled from their camp; but no traces of him were ever discovered, and it was supposed that, becoming benighted, he perished in the prairies. Capt. Dolson, still in command of his company, which was always prepared for action, while riding with a friend, Mr. James, of Bexar, fell into an ambuscade at Barton's Spring, and both were killed and scalped by either Mexicans or Indians. His comrades afterwards buried him and his friend together, with military ceremony, in a double grave. On the 5th of September, John A.

F. Gravis, and two sons of Capt. J. M. Harsell, with two other men, while returning from Brushy to Austin, with a wagon load of corn, were attacked by Indians near the large oak-tree several miles north of the town, and two of the number were killed and scalped. The bodies were brought to the city and interred in the cemetery, together, on the east of the town. Thus, in a short period, in that "city of the dead," we made three double graves.

On the 11th of September, 1842, Gen. Wool, with a force of about twelve hundred Mexicans, having advanced by a new made trail, entered San Antonio suddenly at daybreak; met with but slight resistance; and, after a capitulation agreed upon, received the surrender of its citizens as prisoners-of-war. Among those who thus capitulated were Judge Hutchinson, presiding in the district court, and all the lawyers in attendance. This second capture of Bexar caused some excitement at Austin. Spies were detached toward San Antonio to give notice of the enemy's advance, if he should march on Austin. The land-office, which nominally remained open until this time, was closed by proclamation issued by the commissioner, Col. Ward. It was then deemed advisable by the committee of safety that the land office records, being the most important archives, should be removed to some other place, as it was again expected that an attack would be made on the capital; the number of men there having decreased to almost a skeleton company. Some suggested Bastrop as a suitable place, and others Brushy. The following letter was addressed to the Commissioner of the General Land Office:

"AUSTIN, September 23, 1842

"THOMAS WM. WARD, Esq.:

"SIR: The committee of safety having prepared wagons to take the archives of the government to a place which *they* deem safe from encroachments of the enemy, should it approach this city, are now ready to commence the removal of them to that place.

"Your obedient servants,

"SAMUEL WHITING, *Chairman*.

JAMES WEBB,

JOSEPH LEE,

EUGENE C. KELLY,

A. D. COOMBS,

WM. N. CAZNEAU."

Meanwhile General Wool and his force retreated from San Antonio, carrying with him, in his train of prisoners, both the Bench and Bar. The apparent imminent danger which threatened the capital, was removed by the enemy's retreat. The citizens, always reluctant to permit the removal of the archives, then declined furnishing any aid for that purpose, and the records remained as they were, under the control of the committee of safety.

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During the fall and winter the Indians continued their atory depredations in the neighborhood of the city. Mr. te, who, with his family, resided near the Spicewood ag, then emphatically the outside settler, was surrounded ndians while he was hunting near home. Being a bold, rience frontier man, when the Indians made their ap- ance, he took to a tree, and discharged his rifle with effect. fire was answered by the Indians, one of their balls cut— his shot pouch, and causing his bullets to drop on the— nd. Being thus in his enemies' power, they killed him by— second fire. From the signs discovered on the Indian— , where they retreated, it was believed that one of their— y died, from the wound given him by Mr. White.

a short time after this occurrence, a party of Coman— , led by a chief, bearing on his head a war-dress of buffalo— s, and blowing a whistle furiously, passed near the French— ster's house, and, charging down the hill, dashed along in— lirection of Judge Lockett's plantation. A little son of— judge's, with some young negroes, was playing on the— ie, outside the yard fence, as the Indians rode among— . The lady of the judge, discovering her son's danger, d a rifle and rushed to the rescue, heroically presenting— gun toward the nearest Indians, who ceased to advance— is bold demonstration. But they had already shot her son— an arrow, and he reached his mother's arms with the fatal— fastened in his body; borne bleeding to the house, he sur— d but a few hours. The Indians withdrew, having taken— over a little negro-boy, who was subsequently recovered— n peace was made with the various tribes. Such fre— it depredations would not have been committed had the— ers of government continued to reside at the capital. But— removal, and the consequent decrease of population, pre— ed a sufficient ranging force from being kept on service in— vicinity of the city.

n the 15th of November, 1842, Congress was convened— he president, at Washington *on the Brazos*, to which— e the heads of departments and other civil officers, re— ed from the city of Houston, and there, during the pres— t's term of office, the seat of government, *de facto*, con— ed. In the diplomatic correspondence of that time, it was— mon to date official papers at Washington *on the Brazos*, ontradistinction to Washington *on the Potomac*, the seat— overnment, *de facto* and *de jure*, of our then trusty and— beloved ally, the United States.

this time the government was seriously embarrassed in

its pecuniary affairs; its credit was low, and the treasury exhausted. The departments were destitute of stationery. To remedy this want, General Houston dispatched a worthy officer to Austin, to procure a supply of stationery for the use of the departments and Congress. The committee of safety declined permitting its removal, and transmitted a verbal message, stating that all the archives, stationery, &c., were at the president's service, if he would return, with his officers, to Austin.

In a short time after this occurrence, General Houston issued a secret order to Colonel Thomas J. Smith, of Burleson county, a popular frontier officer and celebrated Indian fighter, authorizing him to raise a body of men, privately, and, proceeding to Austin, remove thence the land-office and other most important records, to Washington on the Brazos, where Congress would be in session. Under the ostensible purpose of making preparations to hold a council with the Indians, prior to concluding a treaty of peace (a favorite scheme of Gen. Houston's), Colonel Smith assembled a body of men, and, with Colonel Eli Chandler, another celebrated frontier Indian fighter, who joined him with a detachment from Robertson county, the party proceeded, in the latter part of December, with two wagons, to Austin. Their movements were so successfully conducted, that they arrived at the city before any intelligence of their advance. The few remaining citizens of the place were surprised, one morning, at seeing the wagons, and Colonel Smith's company of armed men, in front of the land-office. Having loaded their wagons with the records, they took up the line of march on the road to Brushy, intending to go by the Yeguas to Washington. There were at the time so few men in the city, that no effectual resistance could be offered to Colonel Smith's proceedings. The handful of men, however, residing in town, loaded, with canister shot, a large mounted brass howitzer, which usually stood in front of their headquarters, at the hotel. This piece was discharged at the party of Smith, as they moved slowly up Congress avenue, toward Brushy. Some shots penetrated the buildings of the land-office, but most of them fell among the men and wagons, without doing any execution. Colonel Smith continued his march, and encamped that night on Brushy.

On the arrival of the wagons at Austin, expresses had been started by the citizens to the settlements below town, and to Bastrop county, to give the alarm, and request assistance. The small body of men there, having procured horses and at-

hed them to the howitzer, expecting reinforcements, started
h their *flying artillery* to overtake Colonel Smith, on
ashy. J. W. Nowlan, now no more, a generous and gallant
of the Emerald Isle, and others, acting as officers, arrived
h the howitzer on Brushy soon after night. Passing Col-
el Smith's camp, they took up a position in his advance on
road which the wagons would take in the morning.

The plan of action was, to discharge the howitzer first at
oxen, thus to disable the wagons, and then to take posses-
sion of the archives by force, with or without bloodshed, as
circumstances might require. All night long the force at the
howitzer camp was increased by squads of men, well armed,
coming in from the settlements below Austin and from Bas-
com county, some on foot, and some mounted, until, by day-
light, they mustered some one hundred and fifty men. Col-
Smith's force amounted to some thirty men. In the morning
council was held by the commanders of the respective forces,
and argument and remonstrance urged against the removal of
the archives, in conformity with the executive order. The
sufferings and privations endured by the citizens of Austin
and the adjacent frontier, in consequence of its abandonment
to the president—the law on the side of the archive men, as
they believed—their means of defending the city successfully
against the public enemy—were all urged against the clan-
destine procedure of the executive—while the officers and
men of each camp freely conferred together. Finally, the
sign of resisting by force, as an *ultimatum*, any further re-
moval of the records, was announced. Col. Smith and his
command seeing themselves so far outnumbered, and influ-
enced probably by the appeals made to their sense of justice,
concluded not to attempt any further removal of the records,
and they were then taken possession of by the party from
Austin. A dinner was tendered to Col. Smith's command, and
they chose to return with the wagons; but this was declined,
and he retired with his company, excepting the wagoners
of the Brazos. The wagoners then reversed their route, and
returned with the howitzer party to Austin, where they were
respectably entertained. The records were removed from the
wagons, and placed in the custody of the citizens of the place,
and much rejoicing.

Intelligence of this failure to remove the archives was re-
ceived at Washington on the Brazos, where Congress was
in session, with different feelings by the different parties
by the friends of the administration with chagrin, by the
opposition with joy. The counties of Travis and Bastrop

were then ably represented in the national councils. In the senate, that most accomplished jurist and statesman, the late Judge James Webb, represented the two counties, composing a senatorial district. In the lower house, Travis county was represented by the then Colonel, now General Wm. N. Cazneau, and Bastrop by Col. John Caldwell, both eminently distinguished for their success as parliamentary tacticians and leaders. All efforts to procure an act of Congress, changing the seat of government from Austin, or authorizing the removal of the government officers therefrom, failed at this and each subsequent session. Thus affairs stood for several years. Texas presenting the anomalous spectacle of a nation having its public archives at the legal seat of government, Austin, on the Colorado, while the president administered the executive department at Washington, on the Brazos.

When the joint resolution, providing for the annexation of Texas to the United States, had passed, President Jones, elected to succeed Gen. Houston, convoked the convention for framing a State constitution, at Austin, and in the summer of 1845, removed there with the government officers. The archives were then delivered into the possession of the president. On examination, after breaking the seal of Travis county, affixed to the various boxes, for precaution, by the Austin committee of safety, all the land titles and all the archives were duly found correct, without loss or injury. Thus the heavy clouds, which had so long lowered over the destiny of Austin, the beautiful "City of the Hills," were dispelled. The proximate *result* of the measures taken to resist the removal of the archives from that place, was to draw back to it, after a long absence, all the government officers—the remote one, its permanent location as the seat of government. And here we conclude our sketch of one important *act* in that interesting political *drama*, which Texas performed during her independence as a republic.

H. J. J.

ART. IV.—THE MISSISSIPPI:

ITS BARS AND OBSTRUCTIONS, ITS OUTLETS, AND THE MEANS OF PROTECTING THE COMMERCE OF THE SOUTHWEST ON ITS PASSAGE TO THE SEA.

[The following original paper is from the pen of Dr. Cartwright, and is contributed to our pages by request, after having been read to a select company at the Academy of Sciences, a few evenings since. It has been published in no other form, and will certainly prove very interesting to our readers everywhere, as Dr. Cartwright's writings invariably have proved in the past.—Ed.]

THERE is so much to do in this world, and so little time to do it, that we cannot afford to waste time upon the crude ideas of a writer or speaker, on a subject entirely out of the range of his experience and studies. Merchants and men of business have scarcely time to weigh the ideas and examine into the clashing opinions of experienced engineers, pilots, rowboat companies, and U. S. coast surveyors, on the subject of the obstructions at the outlets of the Mississippi, their cause, and the best means of preventing them from being obstacles in the way of commerce. If they wanted to know anything particular about calomel or quinine, or any other product of chemistry used in medical practice, they would hear a physician very attentively, but would be likely to listen to nothing he might say on the subject of the bars at the Balize, or turn on their heel to come and hear him. They ought to remember, however, that for more than two thousand years, calomel, quinine, and even the science of chemistry itself, were unknown to physicians, but there never was a time since the existence of medicine as a science, that medical geography and topography did not constitute an essential part of their studies. Medical geography is the anatomy and physiology of the planet, called the earth. Its end is to make man a cosmopolite, to confer on him the power of making any part of his dwelling-place, and the ruler of everything around him, and to enable him, under all circumstances of season and climate, to enjoy health and long life. Hippocrates, 400 years before the Christian era, made it obligatory upon his disciples to study medical geography as an essential part of their education; besides this, for each one to make himself intimately acquainted with the topography of his particular locality before he presumed to exercise the healing art; and furthermore declared that, without that local knowledge, no physician, however learned in other respects, was qualified to treat diseases, because they varied with the locality.

Commercial geography describes the transit routes by land and water, which exchangeable commodities pursue. Some of these lines of trade affect the health of the country they pass through, making it sickly or healthy, and fall within the province of medical geography. The merchant and mariner, the civil engineer, the land and seacoast surveyor, the geologist and natural historian, have all written important chapters in the great book of medical geography, which is translated and therein recorded. It had long been ascertained by observation that the Atlantic coast in the vicinity of tide water was unhealthy, but the observers did not know why, nor could the geologists, natural historians, hydrographers, civil engineers, or coast surveyors, tell the cause of it, or point out the measures necessary to make it healthy. That eminent physician, Dr. Samuel Mitchell, in his *Outlines on Medical Geography*, not only solved the problem, but went further, and pointed out the means which would convert the Atlantic coast into a healthy country, and at the same time enrich the land. It was simply to scatter *lime* or shells, or anything containing lime, over the surface of the sickly district, which, he had previously ascertained from geologists, contained a deficiency of calcareous earth, and too large a proportion of argil and silica. This was supposed to be a mere theory of his, and very little attention was paid to it at the time. It was, however, no theory at all, but important truths which he had learned from studying the writers on medical geography, particularly those of England.

Mitchell's *Outlines on Medical Geography* was published more than half a century ago, yet so slow is the progress of truth, that the inhabitants of our Atlantic coast have only recently begun to *lime their lands*, and to learn from experience that it not only adds greatly to their fertility, but is banishing the *ague and fever*. Those who do not agree with Prof. Agassiz, that plants and animals are indigenous to certain zones, cannot deny the remarkable influence of locality upon them. Diseases are no less influenced than plants and animals by local causes, as Hippocrates and the older physicians, down to that eminent geographer and natural historian Linnæus, long ago proved, and the British physicians since demonstrated, by their experience in the distant colonies. The small-pox is seldom fatal in Oxfordshire, or indeed in any of the country between the German ocean and the hills which separate the Severn and the Thames, while it is a most deadly ailment in the fenny districts of England, or wherever the atmosphere is vitiated from any local cause, or is too cold or too hot, too wet or too dry.

If medicine in America has fallen from its high estate, and its doubtful struggle with empiricism, it is more owing to the neglect of medical geography and topography than to any other cause. The closer the imitation of the hospital practice of London or Paris, the less successful the American physician is likely to be, especially with females, who are more under cal influences than the sterner sex. They are not the same things in European hospitals which they are in American households. Hence the necessity of inquiring into all those causes which influence the health, or fill the air with those mysterious influences which unnerve the arm of man, cause the rose and the lily to fade on the cheek of woman. Among the greatest of these is the obstruction of water-courses, large and small, from the kitchen-gutter to the outlets of the Mississippi. The obstructions at the passes of the Mississippi are not *without* but immediately *within* the province of medical geography and topography, more especially within that, than within any other department of knowledge. It seems to be the only department of knowledge which has not been called into requisition, consulted, or heard upon the subject. For twenty years the Federal government has been making large appropriations to remove the obstructions at the passes, which have been expended in the pursuit of a short-sighted theory, without making any progress whatever toward the intended improvement. But the damages done to the public treasury in throwing away money to no purpose, are nothing in comparison to the damages done to the commercial interests of New-Orleans, indirectly, by the action of the Federal authority. They promised to open a channel eighteen feet deep, and to keep it open. Encouraged by this delusive promise, the merchants put ships of larger size on the line for trade to New-Orleans than those formerly in that trade. The difficulty which these larger ships lately encountered at the bars, created a panic among nearly all classes at home and abroad, highly unfavorable to the reputation of New-Orleans as a shipping port, as it led to a very general belief that the obstructions in the outlets of the Mississippi were greater than they ever had been, and were on the increase: whereas, the truth is, they are about the same that they have been for the last hundred and forty years, varying a foot or so, sometimes more, with the winds and tides, the opening of new passes and the filling up of old ones. A very short time after the committee sent by the Chamber of Commerce, to ascertain the depth of water on the bars, made their report, a gale of wind enabled thirty-three square-rigged vessels,

detained there, to get to sea, and about twenty others outside of the bars to come in. For a month or more, property, estimated by the committee of the Chamber of Commerce to be worth a sum, which a thousand dollars a day would represent the interest at six per cent. per annum, had been unable to get to sea in consequence of the bars at the outlets of the Mississippi River. The committee say, that "the spectacle which presented itself to them at the bar, gave rise to grave apprehensions whether or not it would be possible to retain the trade of New-Orleans, and maintain its position as the greatest exporting city of the Union, unless some measure of relief is speedily granted; nor are the movements going on around us calculated to allay those fears. Already rival cities, taking advantage of our misfortune, are putting forth their claims to a share of the trade which has heretofore been ours, and which will soon seek other channels unless these obstructions are removed." "Not only the mercantile and trading community generally, but the underwriters at home and abroad, whose risks are rendered doubly hazardous by these impediments to navigation and the consequent extraordinary exertions necessary in dragging ships over the bar, and the Northern and Eastern ship-owners, whose property is rendered unproductive for the time, and worn and torn to no purpose, are all deeply interested in the removal of the evils complained of; but they trust that enough has been said to awaken an interest in the minds of the people generally on the subject to come forward as one man, and memorialize the General Government on the subject of these obstructions to our navigation, *and to call upon it for an appropriation to relieve us at once and permanently.*" Alas! the committee ask for a thing which the General Government for twenty years, under different administrations, have been trying to give, but have failed to give, and will continue to fail to give, until, like the government of England, it avails itself of the truths contained in medical geography. Guided by the light of those truths, the General Government will soon be enabled to give, at a comparatively small cost, a channel from the Gulf of Mexico to the levee in front of New-Orleans, for ships drawing twenty-three feet water.

I came here to-night to draw up a few of these truths out of the well of medical geography, where they lie concealed from all but the British, French, and Russian governments. If I fail to show them it will be my fault—not because they do not exist, but because of my feebleness to hold them up in such a manner as every one can see them. Indeed, I do not

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not to make them palpable and self-evident to all, but I do not to bring them within the range of the vision of a few long-sighted scientific men around me. To them I say, one of the first of these truths of medical geography demands that the obstructions at the outlets of the Mississippi are not *fluvial* but *marine*; not from fluvial action, but from marine action—not of the river, but of the sea. The Mississippi

happening to be a large sedimentary river, forming bars wherever its current is obstructed, has led to the almost universal belief that the bars at its outlets into the Gulf, are formed by a similar fluvial action as the bars in any other part of its long course. The bars at its outlets into the Gulf are supposed to be formed by the turbid stream dropping its sediment at the points where it meets the salt water. And I must confess that I partook of this opinion, until I carried the facts furnished by the topography of the Mississippi at its various embouchures, into the light of medical geography and explained them. Medical geography discloses the fact, that rivers entering the sea at an open or exposed situation, are obstructed by bars across their mouths.

This is so important a fact in a medical point of view, that it has been inquired into; because its effects upon rivers flowing through a low country, or with low grounds near them, have ever been more or less prejudicial to health. The cause of the obstructions in the mouths of all rivers, entering the sea in an exposed locality, is found in the fact that the sea in a rage beats upon any exposed part of the coast, with a dynamic force of from one to five tons to the square yard.

It matters not much where the gale or storm rages; whether near the coast, or hundreds of miles out at sea, the waves raised by the storm or gale will make for the coast with a speed varying from twenty to thirty miles an hour, according to the length of the waves (which are generally from one hundred to one hundred and fifty yards in length and from one yard and a half to eight yards in height) and impinge against it with a percussive power of a ton or more on the square foot. Shells, sand, sea weeds, alluvial deposits, and all other materials in the sea, from its surface to its very bottom (which a force of some tons to the square foot can move), are liable to be impinged into the very mouths of all rivers by the action of the sea waves. It is not only on the surface, but in the centre and down to the very bottom, that the force of the sea wave is exerted. And hence the muddy, silty, or moveable silicious part of the bottom of the sea, may be taken up by the storm waves and cast upon the shore, or into the mouths of all rivers open to their action. A

storm from one point will bring into the mouths of the exposed rivers one kind of sediment, and from another point of the compass, a different kind of sediment entirely—provided the river enters the sea at a point so exposed as to be lashed by the waves of gales and storms arising in more quarters than one. The winds in a storm blow at the speed of about eighty miles an hour, and exert a force of some eighty pounds on the square foot. The speed and force of what is called a hurricane, cannot be well estimated, but are greater than those of a storm. The wind, in what is called a *whole gale*, has been demonstrated to move at the speed of a mile a minute, and that of a fresh breeze at half a mile a minute. All promontories or tongues of land jutting out into the sea are beat upon by both the stronger kind of winds and waves. The Mississippi river enters the sea by various channels through a tongue of land projecting far out into the sea. The channels that are most exposed to the stronger winds and the waves are so obstructed as to be entirely unfit for commercial purposes. The Southwest Pass and Pass a L'Outre, running in opposite directions, the one to the southwest and the other to the northeast, are less exposed than any other in the semicircle facing the open Gulf, and are the only two passes where ships can enter. If the water of the Mississippi river were as clear and as free from sedimentary matter as that of Lake Superior, its outlets into the Gulf would be no less obstructed than they now are; because medical geography gives no instance of a single river, large or small, turbid or clear, entering the sea at an exposed part of the coast, whose mouth is not obstructed with sea drift of some kind or other, sand, shells, or mud. It is a most fortunate thing that the Mississippi river is a turbid stream and throws such a large quantity of soft unctuous matter into the Gulf of Mexico; because that soft, unctuous matter, outcropping other kinds of sea-drift, is washed back again into the outlet of the river, constituting bars so soft that ships can plough through three or four feet thickness of it. It keeps out much of a harder species of drift that would be washed in from the sea, if the soft sea-drift, in the shape of Mississippi mud, had not already been thrown into the Gulf by the action of the river. When the river is in full flood, it carries so much sedimentary matter out into the Gulf, several miles beyond the bars, that any gale or storm on the Gulf, sending its waves in the direction of any particular outlet, beats the river silt back again, and causes huge mud lumps to rise in or near that particular outlet almost in a single night, greatly to the perplexity of the engineers to explain. They would find no

difficulty in the explanation if the lumps consisted of sand or shells. Thus, after Captain Talcott, in 1839, had spent large sums in dredging the Southwest Pass, a storm came and put more mud in the Pass than twice that which he had taken it. Next, the towboat companies made a contract with the Government to clear out the passes to a certain depth, which they did by harrowing and dragging the bottoms. They received their pay just before another heavy gale came to fill them up again. Next in order, Messrs. Craig & Righter took contract under the Government for keeping open an eighteen foot channel. The contract was taken in 1856, five years later Charles Ellet, civil engineer, had made his report to the War Department, "*On the Bars at the Mouth of the Mississippi River*," in which he clearly demonstrated, from actual observations made on the spot, that "the current of the Mississippi sweeps over the bars at the mouths of the passes, many miles out into the Gulf, with a velocity almost undiminished by its contact with the waters of the Gulf. He proved that the river water does not mix suddenly with the sea water, but rises upon it, floats over it, and rushes far out into the Gulf on the top of the denser sea water by which it buoyed up."

"I tested this," says Mr. Ellet, "repeatedly, and found uniformly a column of fresh water, nearly seven feet deep, in the Gulf, entirely outside of land, and salt water at a depth of eight feet below the surface." "The fresh water is lighter than sea water, and floats upon it as oil on water. There is no sudden union, or *consequent precipitation*. There is no sudden destruction of velocity, or *consequent deposit* of suspended silt." The government contractors, however, went to work to restore a velocity which had never been lost, and to prevent the river from dropping its sediment on the bars, as it passed over them, a thing which it never did, and never can do, while it maintains the velocity it is known to have in passing over the bars—a speed of three miles at top, and nearly twenty miles at bottom; yet the idea that it does drop its sediment in passing over the bars, had got so firmly fixed in the heads of the governmental authorities, and the contractors under them, that truth has not yet grown quite strong enough to tear it out. Indeed, it has not got entirely out of the head of Mr. Ellet himself. He demonstrated that the sediment was not dropped while the water was passing over the bars, but, as a layer of sediment was found on the bars very much like *fluvial sediment*, he came to the conclusion that it was *fluvial sediment* brought back by an undertow, or *refluent current*.

An auger had been thrust through the bank of sediment by the United States Corps of Engineers, and it was found to consist of four or five different kinds of strata, bearing *prima facie* evidence that they came from different quarters of the Gulf, and were not dropped by the upper current, or the under tow; yet these facts were disregarded, and the system of piling, by patented Meig dams and jetties, was adopted by the contractors, because such a system had succeeded admirably on the Clyde. If medical geography had been consulted, it would have told why the Meig dams succeeded on the Clyde, and utterly failed on the Mississippi—as will be shown in the sequel. After the failure of the piling, or Meig dams, the contractors resorted to sub-marine blasting. This succeeded so well that it opened a temporary channel, which, in the interval between gales, actually measured eighteen feet in depth; and the same contractors lately published a card that they are ready to make an eighteen feet channel again, as cheaply as any one else. This they may be able to do, but what useful purpose can it serve to the commerce of New-Orleans, to open a channel which will let ships in drawing eighteen feet water, and that may be closed up before they get out, retaining them there with cargoes worth five millions, or more, on the bars for weeks in succession? It will do harm, instead of good. But is there no remedy for the evil? Yes. The wounds inflicted on the commerce of New-Orleans can be healed, by a balm extracted from the time-honored, but neglected, science of medical geography. That science declares that an estuary, inlet, or arm of the sea, sheltered from the silt and drift, shells and sand, riding on the storm waves, is absolutely essential for the embouchure of a river, or an outlet of a river, aspiring to the dignity of having a shipping port on its banks. Medical geography proves that any river, or outlet of any river, which reaches the sea indirectly, through an estuary, frith, loch, bay, or sound, will not be stopped up—but will wash out, if it has a current sufficiently strong to scour its own bottom. The Clyde enters a frith, or estuary, but it was too much diffused to have a sufficient current to scour its channel. The Meig dams and jetties, by confining its waters in a narrow passway, gave its current the requisite velocity to carry out its own sediment, but if it had opened in any such exposed place as the passes of the Mississippi, the Meig dams and jetties would have been of no avail in preventing the channel from being choked up by the drift thrown into it by the tidal waves. It is very probable that some of the silt found on the bar of the

outhwest Pass, was thrown into the Gulf of Mexico by the Rio Grande; and that the Northeast Pass is, in part, blocked up with sediment from the Alabama river.

The Rio Grande, although a great river, as its name imports, enters the Gulf at an exposed point, and although it is not a sedimentary stream, its mouth is much more obstructed than the passes of the Mississippi. The greatest depth of water on the bar being five feet only at flood tide. All the great shipping ports in the whole world, with the exception of New-Orleans, on rivers at all, are on the banks of such rivers as one, which enter the sea indirectly, through an estuary, bay, or sound of some kind or other, protecting their mouths from being obstructed by sea-drift. London, on the Thames; Liverpool, on the Mersey; Canton, on the Peking; Savannah, on a river of the same name, its mouth protected by an estuary, and the estuary itself protected by Tybee Island; Baltimore on the Patapsco; Charleston, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers; Norfolk, on the James; Alexandria and Washington, on the Potomac; Mobile, on the Alabama; Pensacola, at the mouth of the Escambia; Philadelphia, on the Delaware, and New-York, on the Hudson, are familiar instances. Unfortunately, however, for New-York, an ugly lump of sand, more difficult to account for than the mud lumps at the passes of the Mississippi river, has lately begun to rise up on the south side of the main channel of the harbor, and is making such rapid progress every year, as to threaten, ere long, to convert that great emporium of foreign commerce into an inland town. Special commissioners on the harbor encroachment have been appointed, and Lieutenant Bache, superintendent of the U. S. Coast Survey, has been called on by the city authorities to investigate its causes. But whether New-York is shut out from the sea or not, New-Orleans requires larger ships than those which can come in at the passes, to meet the wants of the growing commerce of the Mississippi valley. Small carriers are only profitable on short voyages. Large vessels are demanded for long voyages, as has been proved by the experience of England in her trade to India, and her distant colonies.

The Mississippi river, like the Ganges and the Nile, enters the sea at an exposed locality, and will not admit that large class of ships, called East-Indiamen. It, however, admits vessels of much larger size than either the Ganges or the Nile. When the English took possession of India, the foreign trade on the Ganges was mostly carried on by caravans. The English discovered, however, a neglected bayou of that great

river, which, instead of flowing into the sea in an exposed situation, directed its course into the head of an estuary, called Hooghly bay. This bay contained three islands, so situated as to protect it against the waves of the Bay of Bengal and the Indian Ocean. They named these islands Brunswick, Princes, and Clive. They explored the channel of the bay, and found four fathoms up to the entrance of the bayou in it. They ascended the bayou, finding twenty-three feet water, till they got about one hundred miles from the sea, where was a small village of fishermen's huts. There they built Fort William, and founded that great city of palaces called Calcutta, which has at present thrice the population of New-Orleans. It was founded in 1717. St. Petersburg and New-Orleans were founded at or about the same time. The triplets were all born in a swamp, but with the silver spoon of commerce in their mouths. Their cradle was a levee. It leaked, kept them wet, and made them sickly. Medical geography was called into requisition to nurse St. Petersburg and Calcutta, and to keep the cradle dry. They became healthy, and grew astonishingly. New-Orleans is still lying in her wet cradle, is sickly and stunted in her growth. More than half the trade which belongs to her has gone to New-York, because the great river she lies on is obstructed at its mouth. The Ganges is obstructed at its mouth, yet Calcutta gets all the trade of the great valley of the Ganges by means of a bayou called the Hooghly. New-Orleans could have a similar bayou, which would not only make her dry and healthy, but give her the whole trade of the Mississippi valley. All the countries on the outlets of the Ganges, except the bayou Hooghly, are given up to wild beasts, and are called the Sunderbunds; while that on the bayou is densely populated, containing several millions of inhabitants. Above the bayou the Ganges is also densely populated, but all below where the bayou is given off, is a miserable irreclaimable jungle or swamp, although the lands are actually as high as the bayou lands. The medical geographers, who accompanied the army of the East India Company the last century, explain the matter very satisfactorily. From them we learn that the bottom of all the eight mouths of the Ganges, and all its bayous, except the Hooghly, *spring* or *rise* before they enter the sea, and that the land itself rises or springs near the margin of the sea. Hence they say that the rain water cannot run off fast enough. The rains begin in July and end in October; but it is not until some time in the month of December that the water can run off, but overflows the country from five to twenty or more feet deep, and a

hundred miles in width. They say if it were not for this elevation of the water-courses at their mouths, the rain water and the floods in the Ganges would immediately find their way into the sea, and leave the country dry, because the land is a little higher than the sea. The bottom of the bayou Hooghly, however, not rising, but sinking deeper as it approaches the estuary, into which it falls, readily carries all the rain water off, and also that which is poured into it from the swollen Ganges.

The bottom or bed of the Mississippi is about eighty feet higher at its outlet into the Gulf, than it is in any other part of its channel, from Baton Rouge down. Allowing three and a half inches per mile fall, still it is eighty feet higher at its mouth than at Baton Rouge. The whole lower stem of the river would be overflowed as deep as the Sunderbunds, if it were not for the levees. But if its channel were unobstructed at its mouth, there would be no use for levees at all, and ships of the largest size would come up to New-Orleans. At its outlets at the Balize, there is a power at work in making and preserving a dam across its various mouths or passes, as they are called, eighty feet high, that is, eighty feet above its bed or bottom; and over this dam ships, drawing eighteen feet water, are sometimes dragged, by scraping away the upper crust of the dam.

It is in vain to call on the Government to remove the dam, and keep the passage clear. No power on earth can do it. It is beyond the power of man or any government on earth to prevent the percussive force of the waves of the sea, estimated at from one to five tons to the square foot, from speedily rebuilding the dam, if it could be removed by human power.

But where is the necessity of contending against such a power? Is there no estuary in the vicinity of New-Orleans, like that of the Hooghly estuary, into which a bayou or a new pass or outlet of the Mississippi could be made to flow—and where there would be no sea waves to make a dam across its mouth? There is such an estuary not more than fifteen miles from New-Orleans, and not more than five miles from the river, a short distance below the city. But most unfortunately that estuary has, by a strange misnomer, been called *a lake*, and everybody has jumped to the conclusion, engineers and all, that if an outlet were made from the river into it, that the lake would fill up, and the outlet would be of little or no use. So it would if that estuary were *a lake*—but it is *not a lake*, but presents a wider expanse of water (from five to ten miles) next to the sea, than is commonly found in estu-

aries and bayous—the idea of its being a lake had got so firmly fixed in the minds of the federal authorities, that the topographical bureau, in its report, as far back as the year 1837, forcibly recommended an appropriation of ten millions of dollars, to construct a ship canal into the supposed lake, provided with expensive locks to guard against the filling up of the lake by the ship canal. The bayou Hooghly has been running from time immemorial into the Hooghly estuary, which is as much like a lake as the estuary misnamed Lake Borgne, yet neither the Hooghly estuary, nor its bayou, has filled up; but, on the contrary, is as deep, if not deeper, than it was a century and a half ago. A bayou from the Nile falls into the little estuary containing the harbor of Alexandria. That bayou was made by Alexander the Great. It has no lock, yet it has not filled up the harbor of Alexandria. Ships of the largest size enter that estuary still. The bayou or canal, uniting the harbor of Alexandria with the Nile, is forty-eight miles in length, eighty feet in breadth, and about eighteen feet in depth. Besides this canal there is another one twelve miles long, leading to Rosetta, on the western outlet of the Nile. From some cause it got choked up, or was filled up, at the point where it left the Nile, and remained so for some centuries. During that time Alexandria declined; but Mohammed Ali, forty years ago, 1819, let the water through it again; since which, Alexandria has again risen into commercial importance.

Peter the Great founded the city of St. Petersburg, on the rigolets called the Neva, which discharge the waters of Lake Ladoga into the Gulf of Finland, as our rigolets discharge those of Lake Pontchartrain into the estuary called Lake Borgne. He had a canal out from the Neva into one of the navigable branches of the Volga, by means of which he obtained an uninterrupted water communication with the Caspian Sea, in Asia. Strong, high levees, constructed of granite, protect the city from inundation. The Gulf of Finland, all the way from St. Petersburg to Cronstadt, twenty-two miles, is no wider than the estuary called Lake Borgne, at its entrance into Mississippi Sound. We hear nothing of that little bay, lying between St. Petersburg and Cronstadt, filling up—because it gradually slopes from a depth of eight feet, at the mouth of the Neva, to a depth of three fathoms at Cronstadt, then to four and five fathoms, and finally to ten and fifteen fathoms after it passes the harbor of Cronstadt. The estuary, called Lake Borgne, gradually slopes from its banks (which come within five miles of the Mississippi River), where it has a depth, a few yards from the shore, of eight feet, to a depth of

fifteen feet, where it enters the Mississippi Sound—and hence to Cat Island harbor, the sound, which it enters, acquires a depth of twenty-one feet, until it finally reaches the harbor between Cat Island and Isle au Pied, where there is plenty of water from twenty-five to forty feet deep. By looking at the soundings of the United States Coast Survey, made in 1856, it will be perceived that a sheet of water three and one fourth to four fathoms unites Cat Island harbor with Ship Island harbor, some eight or ten miles to the east—and that there is a gradual slope into the Gulf, both from Ship and Cat Island harbors southward, until a depth of water of six and seven fathoms is reached, five miles north of the Chandilieur Islands—and from that point there is a slope to the southeast, from seven fathoms to twelve and thirteen—beyond which the soundings were not carried by the coast surveyors, because the deep water of the gulf was reached. Cat Island harbor being but about half the distance from New-Orleans of either of the passes at the Balize; hence, if an outlet were made from the river, leading into that harbor, the velocity of the water through the new pass would be much greater than that of the river itself, and, running down an inclined plane, would scour out its bottom, instead of filling it with sediment, as has been supposed.

Mr. Ellet, in his report to the War Department, demonstrated that an outlet fourteen feet deep could be made from the river, into Cat Island harbor. At the time he made the survey, in 1851, he said that, if the levee, at a point where he stood (ten miles below the city), “were removed, the water would rush from the Mississippi, toward the Gulf, in a column six feet deep. But if the earth immediately back of the levee were excavated to the level of the swamp, the water would pour through this opening in a column ten and a half feet deep.” But if a cut were made to a level of the bottom of the lake, after making every allowance for filling up, he came to the conclusion that fourteen feet could be maintained in the outlet. There is no reason why twenty-three feet could not be had in such an outlet from the Mississippi, as that is the depth of that outlet of the Ganges which falls into Hooghly bay. Cat Island and Ship Island harbors are both landlocked by islands, almost exactly like Bombay harbor—the best harbor in Asia. Mr. Ellet estimated that “an outlet, or new pass, at that point of the river with the Gulf, would reduce the surface of the high water line at New-Orleans four feet, and possibly five feet.” It would be a cheaper plan of draining the city, than that lately recommended by Major

Beauregard. It would injure some interests : there would be no use for pilots, but it would not affect the towboat companies. The current would be so strong between the river and Cat Island harbor, that towboats would still be necessary to bring ships up from that point to the levee in front of New-Orleans. It would, however, surely convert the canal Carondelet into a dry ditch, except in rainy weather. Commercial men can better appreciate, than I can, the advantages to commerce of a nearer and deeper channel to the sea than the present one, but they cannot so well appreciate its advantages in regard to health, because they seldom visit Baton Rouge, and have not looked so closely, as some medical men, into a *deep well there*, in which so many valuable truths in regard to the health and medical geography of New-Orleans and Louisiana lie hid from public view. *It is called the State Library.* In that well will be found "*Charlevoix's Works*," 3 vols., describing New-Orleans, and giving its topography ; and "*Lavil's*," 2 vols., 1728 ; "*La Harpe's Journal for Five Years*," which is very minute in its medical geographical details ; "*Du Pratz's History*," 3 vols., 1758, a work edited by Duvallon, founded on three years' residence in Louisiana, near the close of the last century ; "*Robin's Travels in Louisiana*," 3 vols. ; and "*Loziere's*," 2 vols., 1817 ; "*Father Labat's*," and "*Count de Vergennes' Memoir on Louisiana* : " all of which contain a great deal of medical geographical information. Among other things, they prove that a residence in New-Orleans, or its vicinity, was *then*, as it is *now*, almost a sure cure for dyspepsia and many other distressing chronic ailments, by bringing the blood into the cutaneous capillaries. As early as the year 1718, the French Government pressed the science of medical geography into its service, and sent out La Harpe to explore Louisiana ; a science which the American Government, of the present day, does not seem to know the use of, or even the existence of, judging from the vast sums it has expended in fruitless attempts to deepen the water over the bars, at the Balize, without pressing into its service the only science which could enable it to act understandingly. Nor does the city government of New-Orleans seem to be aware of the existence of the science which directs the footsteps of Queen Victoria, or it would surely have taken counsel from it before spending so much money in attempts to do what has not been done—*draining the city*. If it had been guided by the light of medical geography, half the money spent in those fruitless attempts would have been sufficient to have *thrown an outlet of the Mississippi into an estuary*,

below New-Orleans, which would not only have drained the city, but would have given it the commerce of half a continent.

ART. V.—THE UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH.

ADDRESS OF THE COMMISSIONERS TO THE PEOPLE OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

At a meeting of the Board of Trustees of the University of the South, held at Montgomery, Ala., in November, 1857, it was resolved that the Bishops of Louisiana and Georgia be appointed Commissioners to canvass the several Dioceses for subscriptions to form the endowment of a University. This resolution was re-affirmed at a subsequent meeting of the Board, held at the Beersheba Springs, Tenn., in July, 1858, and, by authority of this commission, the undersigned are now engaged in the performance of this important duty.

The undersigned have deemed it necessary, as auxiliary to their work, to sketch the history of this proposed University, and to discuss the principles upon which it is to proceed. It presents some features which are peculiar, and which, it is believed, will commend it to the confidence of the States for whose blessing it has been instituted. As these are contained in pamphlets which are rapidly getting out of print, it is proposed to embody them in this publication, and present them anew to the public attention.

The Southern States have not been indifferent to the subject of collegiate education. Each of these States, at a very early period of its history, has founded a University, upon which it was intended to concentrate the patronage of the State Legislature. Could this policy have been adhered to steadily, free from the interference of popular clamor, or religious differences, the University which we are now proposing to establish, might have been unnecessary. But

it has been virtually abandoned by the incorporation, year after year, of colleges, which have drawn off from the State Universities both their students and their means of advancement. No one of the Southern States has either wealth or population enough to do more than sustain, upon a proper footing, a single collegiate institution, while we find, in each of them, four or five colleges contending for the mastery, and endangering, in the struggle, the State University.

This condition of things, while it has diffused education and placed the course at college within the reach of a larger number of young men, has prevented any one of these institutions from attaining the very highest rank as a University, and has left that want to be supplied. And this is no time for us to be behind the rest of the world in either intellectual or moral greatness. The South needs, more than ever, men of the very highest education, who shall prove, by their ripe scholarship, that our institutions are not adverse to the

loftiest culture, and who shall be prepared to maintain truth and right against all comers, not merely by the force of genius, but with the resources of learning and the traditions of the world. And, under our peculiar form of government, where opinions and policy vary with the caprices of the moment, we can hope for such scholarship only from an organization independent of the popular will for its revenues, and immoveable in its conduct as the Church of Christ. We think, therefore, that the right chord was struck in the Southern heart when the people of the ten States, lying south and southwest of Virginia and Kentucky, were invited to a union for this purpose upon the comprehensive principles of the Episcopal Church.

This invitation was given in the summer of 1856, through a letter addressed, by the Bishop of Louisiana, to the Bishops of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas, in which he drew their attention to this necessity of the South, and invited their co-operation for its supply. His language was this :

"Institutions there are within the pale of all our Dioceses, upon a more or less enlarged scale, and of greater or less excellence. They have been established either by State patronage, or founded by one or other of the religious denominations surrounding us, and are doing what they can—and, in some instances, with eminent and honorable success—to supply a public necessity; and whatever their degree of excellence may be, they do not meet the wants of our people.

"In the minds of many, they are not upon a scale sufficiently extended or full to offer advantages comparable to those to be had abroad, or at the institutions of highest grade in the Northern States of our Union; and, for that reason, are set aside, and our children are expatriated or sent off to an inconvenient distance, beyond the reach of our supervision or parental influence, exposed to the rigors of an unfriendly climate, to say nothing of other influences not calculated, it is to be feared, to promote their happiness or ours.

"Our Dioceses are all comparatively new, some of them but of yesterday. They must therefore be expected to be feeble—too feeble singly to rear any such establishments as could occupy the commanding position, or offer such advantages as I have indicated. But what we cannot do singly, we may, with great ease, do collectively. I believe now is the time at which we may found such an institution as we need. An institution to be our common property, under our joint control, of a clear and distinctly recognized Church character, upon a scale of such breadth and comprehensiveness, as shall be equal in the liberality of its provisions for intellectual cultivation to those of the highest class at home or abroad, and which shall fully meet the demands of those of our people, who require for their children the highest educational advantages, under the supervision of the Church."

This letter led to a meeting, at Philadelphia, during the session of the General Convention in October, 1856, of the Bishops included in the above invitation. At that meeting it was unanimously resolved to attempt the foundation of a University upon the amplest scale, and to prepare an address to the members and friends of the Episcopal Church in the Southern and Southwestern States, inviting their co-operation. This address was signed by all the Bishops in attendance upon that meeting, and sets forth the reasons which incited them to this vast undertaking. After speaking of the great responsibility which rested upon them as the chief pastors of the Episcopal Church, to make suitable provision for the training of the young in learning and religion, they say :

"We desire, in the outset, to express our sense of the high character and eminent services of many institutions, already existing in the several States, where our fields of labor lie—institutions which, whether founded by the States severally, or by one or other of the religious denominations inhabiting them, have discharged the duty of training those committed to their care with honorable success, and on an extended scale. Of the capabilities and the claims of some of these, the personal experience of several of our number would forbid our speaking otherwise than in terms of the highest respect and veneration.

"It is believed, nevertheless, that the whole ground is not occupied; that the work to be done is beyond the power of the laborers who are employed in doing it; and that the entrance of another institution of a high grade upon the field to be cultivated, so far from being uncalled for, should be hailed as a welcome ally.

"Nothing is more common than to hear it affirmed that the hopes of mankind are suspended upon the success of the experiment in government now being made in these States. The success or failure of this experiment turns entirely on the degree of intelligence, and the character of the moral sentiment which shall distinguish the masses of our population. These masses are but the aggregation of individuals, and the responsibility and duty of originating and sustaining Institutions whose offices go to the point, directly or indirectly, of enlightening them, is therefore obvious and imperative. And we may add, if there ever was a time in the history of our republic at which good men were called upon more than at another, to unite upon efforts to found such institutions, the present is that period. At no time in all the past, have we been so threatened with the spread of the wildest opinions in religion and government; and at no period, therefore, has there been so great a call to put into operation and multiply agencies, whose high conservatism shall furnish us with the means of making fast the foundations of the State, securing a sound and healthy feeling in the social condition, and preserving in their integrity the great truths of our holy religion.

"In view of this condition of things, we, your Bishops, during our sojourn in this city, in attendance on the General Convention, have thought it expedient to take the matter into our serious consideration, and have come to the conclusion, it is of so pressing a character, that no time should be lost in relieving it; and that for its relief in the most effectual manner, no plan presents itself of so promising a character as that which would unite the energies and resources of all our Dioceses in one common effort. We have therefore resolved, after mature deliberation and consultation with leading clergymen and laymen of our several Dioceses, to propose to you to unite our strength in founding an Institution upon a scale of such magnitude, as shall answer all our wants. This, we propose, shall be a University, with all the faculties—theology included—upon a plan so extensive, as to comprise the whole course usually embraced in the most approved institutions of that grade, whether at home or abroad.

"We are aware of the magnitude of such an enterprise, in all its aspects—the large amount of capital necessary for its foundation, and the very weighty responsibility resting upon those who shall be charged with the duty of shaping its plans and conducting them to a successful consummation. But when we think of the pervading and far-reaching influence such an institution could not but have upon the interests of the country and the Church, and reflect on the extent of the field whence we propose to draw, not only the means for its establishment, but the minds to found and govern it, we dare not hesitate to believe that all the resources necessary, of whatever description, are within our reach, and will be forthcoming so soon as they shall be needed. To say nothing of the well-known and ample wealth belonging to our communion generally, we will not allow ourselves to believe that upon the presentation of such an occasion for the employment of a part of that treasure committed to our stewardship, we shall fail to find our Lawrences and Stuyvesants, our Moores, and Kohnes, and Gores, and Dudleys, ready to lend their aid in the consummation of so great a work."

In this address was incorporated a rough sketch of certain articles to be submitted to the Conventions of the Dioceses uniting in this undertaking, among which was one designating the persons who were to constitute the Board of Trustees of the University. This second article was as follows :

"That the Board of Trustees should be composed of the Bishops of the Dioceses, *ex-officio*, so uniting, and one clergyman and two laymen from each of the said Dioceses, to be elected by the Conventions of the same. The joint consent of the Bishops, as an order, and of the clerical and lay trustees, shall be necessary to the adoption of any measure proposed."

The Conventions of the Ten Dioceses, having approved the action of their Bishops, elected in accordance with this second article a Board of Trustees, which convened in July, 1857, at the Lookout Mountain, and inaugurated this great undertaking.

At that meeting a declaration of fundamental principles was adopted and subscribed by all the Trustees in Convention assembled. These principles are the Constitution of the University, and have been endorsed by the Dioceses uniting in this work, and to some of these we desire to invite the particular attention of our readers.

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES SET FORTH AND SUBSCRIBED BY THE TRUSTEES IN CONVENTION ASSEMBLED.

We, the undersigned, Bishops and Delegates of the Dioceses of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee, do hereby resolve to establish a University upon the following principles :

1. The University shall, in all its parts, be under the sole and perpetual direction of the Protestant Episcopal Church, represented through a Board of Trustees.

2. The Board of Trustees shall be composed of the Bishops of the Dioceses above named, *ex officio*, and one clergyman and two laymen from each of said Dioceses, to be elected by the Convention of the same. The joint consent of the Bishops as an order, and of the Clerical and Lay Trustees as another order, shall be necessary to the adoption of any measure proposed. The Senior Bishop, by consecration shall always be President of the Board.

3. This University shall not be put into operation until the sum of, at least, Five Hundred Thousand Dollars be actually secured.

4. The funds subscribed to this University, shall be all considered as Capital, to be preserved untouched for any purposes connected either with the organization or management of the University; provided that donations and legacies may be received for such objects as the donors may indicate.

5. There shall be a Treasurer appointed in each Diocese by the Convention of the same, to whom shall be delivered the cash, notes, bonds, stocks, or titles to land, obtained as subscription in that Diocese; whose duty it shall be, under the advice of the Standing Committee, to invest the cash and all money which shall be derived from the realization of the abovementioned private securities, in the best public securities, or other safe investments, paying over annually to the Treasurer of the University the interest of the amount subscribed.

6. There shall be a Treasurer of the corporation, who shall receive the interest annually from the Diocesan Treasurers, and expend it under the direction of the Board of Trustees.

7. The amount subscribed in any Diocese, as above, shall, in the event of the dissolution of the corporation, be returned to the donors, or their legal representatives, and in case of there being no legal representatives, then it shall revert to the Diocese.

8. The location of this University shall be as central to all the contracting Dioceses as shall be consistent with the necessary conditions of location.

9. No Diocese shall be bound by these principles to furnish any particular sum of money, but its contributions shall be voluntary, according to its pleasure and ability.

10. The signatures to this Declaration shall not bind the Dioceses further than they may have already bound, or may hereafter bind themselves, by their respective Conventions.

Signed at the Lookout Mountain, near Chattanooga, Tennessee, this sixth day of July, A. D., 1857.

JAMES H. OTY, *Bishop of Tennessee.*

LEONIDAS POLK, *Bishop of Louisiana.*

STEPHEN ELLIOT, *Bishop of Georgia.*

N. H. CORBS, *Bishop of Alabama.*

W. M. GREEN, *Bishop of Mississippi.*

FRANCIS H. RUTLEDGE, *Bishop of Florida.*

THOMAS F. DAVIS, *Bishop of North Carolina.*

DAVID PISE,

FRANCIS B. FOGG, } *Tennessee.*

JOHN ARMFIELD,

W. T. LEACOCK, } *Louisiana.*

GEORGE S. GUION,

HENRY C. LAY, } *Alabama.*

CHARLES T. POLLARD,

L. H. ANDERSON,

W. W. LORD, *of Mississippi.*

ALEXANDER GREGG, *of South Carolina.*

M. A. CURTIS,

W. D. WARREN, } *North Carolina.*

J. WOOD DUNN, *of Texas.*

It will be perceived that this undertaking is based upon a union of ten Dioceses, and that the representation from each Diocese is equal, consisting of the Bishop of each Diocese, one clergyman from each Diocese, and two laymen from each Diocese. The lay representation from each Diocese is precisely equal to the clerical representation, the Bishop and one clergyman being counterbalanced by two laymen. This makes the laity in the Board as strong as the bishops and clergy put together. In order to save all difficulty of election, the senior Bishop by consecration, is always to be the president of the Board.

The principle, however, which is the important one in the conception of this enterprise, is that regulating the endowment of the University. This fundamental article of our Union provides that one of the money subscribed for the endowment of the University shall never be touched for any purposes connected with the University, but that every expenditure for the building, furnishing, equipment and organization of the University shall be made out of the interest derived from that endowment, with the understanding, however, that any subscriber may designate how his subscription shall be expended. This provision is contained in the 4th Article, which reads thus :

4th. That there should be a Treasurer appointed in each Diocese, to whom shall be paid the sum subscribed in that Diocese, whose duty it shall be to vest these sums in unquestionable public securities, paying over annually, to the Treasurer of the Corporation, the interest of the amount subscribed.

To carry out this arrangement, the funds collected in each State are placed in the keeping of the Lay Trustees of that State, and the local Treasurer elected by the Convention, of that State. These three gentlemen are to have charge of the University funds of their State, and are to pay over to the Treasurer of the University only the interest of those funds. The Board of Trustees will have, therefore, at its disposal, only the annual interest of the endowment, and can appropriate nothing more than that. Should the University prove a failure, the 7th Article provides that the money subscribed shall be returned to the donors or their legal representatives, and, if there be no legal representatives, shall revert to the Diocese in which it was subscribed.

The advantages to be derived from this arrangement are the security of the funds and the permanency of the institution. The funds are secured by being distributed among ten States, and guarded in each State by the vigilance of three persons. The money subscribed in Louisiana, for example, is placed for safe keeping and for investment in the hands of three gentlemen, selected for their high social position, their unimpeached integrity, and their business habits, and every obligation taken by the Commissioners, or every investment hereafter to be made, is transferable only by the joint endorsement of those three persons. They pay over to the Treasurer of the University only the interest of the funds in their hands, and thus the Board of Trustees is checked and restrained from any waste or misuse of the endowment of the University.

It renders the University permanent, by preserving its endowment from diminution. It is as rich at the close of each year as it was at the beginning. Suppose that one million of dollars, which is much less than we hope to raise, should be subscribed for its endowment, the interest of this, say at seven per cent, would be \$70,000 per annum. The University makes its start with this. The Board of Trustees meets and appropriates this income, the interest of its endowment for the year, to buildings. Committees are appointed to see that this money is properly expended. The year passes away. The Board meets again. It has now at its disposal the interest for the second year, a like amount of \$70,000. It appropriates this again to buildings, to a library, to apparatus, and takes like care that it is properly expended. Another year passes away. The Board meets a third time; its preparations are now ample enough to permit it to put the University into partial operation—to choose its president, professors, etc. It comes to this work with undiminished funds. It is as rich now that its buildings, its apparatus, etc., are completed, as it was in the beginning—perhaps richer—for this endowment will be perpetually increasing from gifts, bequests, and legacies, far more than it will diminish by any loss of funds.

Hitherto, in undertakings of this sort, much of the fund collected has been put into brick and mortar, and when the buildings were finished, but little has been left to pay the professors, and enlarge and advance the institution. Our colleges have been got up upon

so small a scale, and their originators have been in too great a hurry to put them into operation. We have determined to avoid these evils. We have bound ourselves not to take a single step until we all have received obligations to the amount of \$500,000, bearing interest, as the lowest point at which we should commence. This will give us from \$30,000 to \$40,000 per annum, quite as large an annual income as the most flourishing institutions of the United States possess, independent of their tuition fees and lecture tickets. This secures us from having a petty affair upon our hands, and we all take our time for putting it into operation. An oak that is to read abroad its branches in greatness and power, that is to stand the storms of centuries, does not grow up in a day. The authentic records of Oxford reach back to the reign of Henry III. Harvard almost coeval with the landing of the Pilgrims. While, therefore, we shall lose no time in the execution of our work, we shall not commit ourselves to be hurried forward faster than either our means or our wisdom shall direct us. We are, from the organization of the Episcopal Church, a perpetual body. If one Bishop dies, another, good as he, as wise as he, as learned as he, can be found to take his place. And so with our clergy and our laity. The Episcopal Church, with its high culture, can always find men, in every Diocese, fully qualified to stand in the places of any who may pass away. Our plans will be arranged upon the largest scale; our curriculum will be made as extensive as literature, and science, and art, and religion, and the advancing civilization of the world shall require; our scheme will be sketched out, in its final consummation, upon the most perfect ideal; but we shall fill up, for the present, only such part of our means shall allow us to complete, and leave it to those who come after us to finish the detail, as they shall see the necessity and possess the power. We shall thus secure to the South an institution of the very highest grade, and raise up a body of scholars of whom our country need be ashamed.

And besides this, we shall secure for the South a literary centre, a point at which mind may meet mind, and learning encounter learning, and the wise, and the good, and the cultivated, may receive strength and polish, and confidence, and whence shall go forth a tone that shall elevate the whole country. We, of all men, should be the most highly cultivated, because we have the most leisure. Labor is reformed among us by a caste, and there is, in consequence, a large body of men, who can devote themselves to the elegancies of literature, and to such a culture as shall make their homes the envy of all lands. The world is trying hard to persuade us that a slaveholding people cannot be a people of high moral and intellectual culture. Because for the last seventy years, in the necessity which was laid upon us for hewing down our forests, and settling our wildernesses, we have been neglectful of the details of literature, the world has come to suppose, and has worked the impression in upon ourselves, that our institutions are unfavorable to literary development. Never is there a grosser error than this. Before this position can be es-

tablished, the literature of the Hebrews, a slaveholding people by the direct permission of God, must be blotted from the book of Life, the pathetic narratives of Moses, the songs of the sweet Psalmist of Israel, the eloquence of him whose lips were touched with a live coal from off the altar. Before this opinion can be assented to, scholars must cease to be nurtured upon the literature of the Greeks, another slaveholding people, and writers to find their models for every species of composition among the dramatists, and historians, and orators, and philosophers of Attica and Ionia. Before this can be maintained, the Mantuan swan must be forgotten, the lessons and example of the greatest rhetorician the world has ever known must be put aside, and statesmen must cease to learn their wisdom at the feet of Cæsar and of Tacitus, for Rome was a slaveholding power of the intensest sternness. And upon what has been reared the literary greatness of our fatherland? Upon her classification of society, and upon her collegiate arrangements, which have enabled a portion of her people to devote themselves, without interruption, to literary pursuits. This great advantage we possess, by means of that very institution which is supposed to check literary progress. And we should now begin to use it. Hitherto the South has been expanding herself—enlarging her borders, and working up her resources—"mewing," as Milton grandly expresses it, "her mighty youth,"—but now should she find time for nobler things, and enter upon a friendly and glorious rivalry with the rest of the world in letters and culture. There is secured to us, by the Constitution of the United States, the most perfect liberty of thought and expression; we have that division of classes which makes one a laboring and the other a dominant class—one a working and the other a thinking and governing class; we possess, through our monopoly of some of the greatest agricultural staples of the world, sources of unbounded wealth. What more do we need? Nothing but the perception of our own resources—but the determination to assert our rightful place among the learned of the earth—but the will to lay aside petty differences and unite upon a grand foundation for letters and religion.

And this University will not interfere with the existing institutions of the States. Even now, after centuries of duration, standing in the midst of thirty millions of people, Oxford does not matriculate more than four hundred students annually. This is the number of men, demanding the highest education, who knock at her doors. Supposing that this should be the number applying annually at our University, this would not deprive the State institutions of their numbers. The very highest scholarship is never sought for, save by a limited number of persons. A lesser amount of scholarship is all that a vast majority cares for. This highest scholarship, which is necessary as a standard—which is necessary for the reputation of a country—which is essential to the dignity and prestige of the South, it is our desire to furnish. The existing institutions will continue to supply and advance the scholarship which they are now giving. They will be the sources whence we shall derive much of our strength

our influence. When their students shall have graduated, if we offer them a maturer cultivation, they will spend additional years at the University; if they intend to devote themselves to literature and the sciences, they will take up their residence in its neighborhood, and have free access to its libraries, its collections, its lecture-rooms. If they are prepared to give their lives to some specialty, the means will be afforded them for their work, and the diversity press be ready to give their learning to the world. And while the government of this University will be restricted to the sphere which founds it, so that it may be a unit and work harmoniously, its academic halls, its lecture-rooms, its libraries, its collections of science or art, of whatever kind, will be freely opened to

Any man, no matter what his religious opinions may be, may come and drink of the waters that shall flow from this fountain, with the single restriction that he comes not there as a propagandist, with the intention of mingling the poison of infidelity with its waters. We desire to build a great University, which shall reach its arms, far and wide, to literature, to science, to art, to knowledge, under the sacred sanction of religion as we have received it from our fathers.

So far every step has been securely taken. The location has been judiciously chosen, as will be seen by consulting the address of

Committee of the Board, with its accompanying maps. Nine thousand acres of land have been given us by the Sewanee coal company, and by the citizens of Franklin county, Tennessee. A charter of incorporation, which will be found in an appendix to this address, has been obtained from the Legislature of Tennessee. A committee has been appointed to draft a plan of the inner life of the University. We are collecting the endowment, and the larger that endowment becomes, the wider will be the scope of the University. And its revenues to the country would be the richest dividends it could ever receive, dividends that would give it security, reputation, glory among nations. And how easily it can be done! Here is a population of five millions of people scattered over this southern country, many of them abounding in wealth, many of them seeking for channels through which they may dispense usefully the money which God has trusted to their care. A few of these persons have already contributed more than one third of the sum stipulated as our starting point. Thirty persons have given us, within a few weeks, over 20,000. Shall not this be an encouragement to others to come forward, every man according to his ability in the sight of God, and to add this great scheme to its consummation? We have no doubt that every Southern heart will say, Amen!

And the principle upon which we have set out of never using the principal of our endowment, makes it very easy for every man to do part. He may spread his payments over any reasonable period. He may pay the interest, and the principal may be paid in instalments, to suit the convenience of the parties. In this way very handsome things may be done for the University, things which, at first sight,

might seem impossible to the donor. All the University wants is the regular payment of the interest, with a proper security of the principal. Give her that, and she will be as well served as by the cash, for that would require immediately to be reinvested.

We have thought it well thus to embody, in this address, all our history, action and purposes. We feel those purposes to be patriotic; that they look first or last to the welfare of the whole country; that they are not the less national because they regard directly the well-being of that section whose moral and intellectual condition is most dear to us. And while we would, with a comprehensive patriotism, rejoice in the advancement of all parts of the Republic in everything that can elevate and dignify us as a people, we cannot forget that our first duty is to that portion which gave us birth, and for whose intellectual and moral well-being we are, as Southern men, more especially responsible.

Take this address home with you; read it in your domestic circle; weigh in the balance against money the worth of good principles and high education for your children; summon before you the isolation in which the world is attempting to place you and your institutions; recall all you have ever said that breathed of love for the South, that savored of indignation against those that were warring against her; bring to your remembrance your many resolutions for benefiting your homes, your many reproaches because your section would not vindicate herself; above all, recollect that your wealth is a trust from God, for which you must account to him as well as to society, and determine, in the face of all these considerations and memories, whether you will turn your back upon this most promising conception, or come up like whole-hearted Southern and Christian men, and found a University for the South that shall be worthy of our fathers, worthy of our children.

LEONIDAS POLK,	} Commissioners.
<i>Bishop of the Diocese of Louisiana,</i>	
STEPHEN ELLIOTT,	
<i>Bishop of the Diocese of Georgia,</i>	

NEW-ORLEANS, February 24, 1859.

ART. VI.—MR. JEFFERSON—THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE AND FREEDOM.

In 1851, Mr. Webster, in his great speech to the "young men of Albany," remarked: "It was in Cromwell's time that there sprung up a race of saints who called themselves 'fifth monarchy' men; and a happy, self-pleased, and glorious people they were, for they had practised so many virtues, they were so enlightened, so perfect, that they got to be, in the language of the day, above 'ordinances.' That is the higher law of this day, exactly. Our higher law is but the old doctrine of the

the monarchy men' of Cromwell's time revived. They were ve ordinances—walked about prim and spruce, self-satisfied, thankful to God that they were not as other men; but had lined so far to salvation, as to be 'above all necessity of raint and control, civil or religious.'” And he might have ed, they were the most dangerous of all the enemies that 1 threatened the established order of things; being enthusts, stubborn fanatics, who were constantly engaged in plots the overthrow of all human government, and every form of gious worship. But there is a difference between the docce of these wild visionaries and that of their imitators of present day in this: the first derived their sanction, as 7 contended, from the Word of God, as spoken in the Scrips; while the latter claim theirs from those lights which law of nature affords. It will be our purpose to examine sources and the principles of this natural law, and to see far they may be applied to, or to what extent they conflict 1, the duties of master and slave, as recognized in the thern States.

both the Divine law, and, as contra-distinguished from it, natural law, spring from the immutable decrees of the ator; and both, it is maintained by publicists, are equally ling upon all men in all places, and in all time. There is, ever, this very grave distinction between them: one is a lation directly from God to man, in terms that cannot be taken, and therefore admits of no denial; and the other is rtained by the deductions of reason, as applied by man self to his own humanity. Hence, it is not surprising, ; notwithstanding the law of nature has occupied the ation of the most enlightened intellects, no uniform and sfactory system has been promulgated, of universal accepte. Indeed, it may be said that no class of writers can be id, who differ more radically or more widely in their theo, or in the application of principles, than these same sprudents, who pretend to have discovered an invariable dard of right and wrong by which all people are to square ractions, and to which all human laws must be subservient. h a modesty that is as remarkable as it is rare, the specuons of these closet philosophers are declared to possess as h force over man as an individual, and over man as a nber of society, as though they came fresh from the inspiraof the Bible itself. Thus has grown up, by the acquiesce and ignorance of mankind, what may be called the ritten law of God; and thus has been yielded to its exlders those gifts of wisdom which distinguished the Apostles 1.

The truth is, natural law is less understood by the mass of men than any other branch of ethical or legal science. It is a subject, perhaps, too profound or too intricate for the investigation of persons who are destitute of leisure or a taste for such pursuits. The English language has not been enriched by more than two productions, of which we are aware, devoted to a discussion of this and kindred topics. And these, though of recent origin, it must be confessed, have added rather to the confusion than the elucidation of the points of greatest difficulty. Judge Story's work, "On the Conflict of Laws," in particular, is a jumble of opposite and irreconcilable principles from beginning to end, and a perfect labyrinth of darkness.

It is worthy also of remark, that most of the publicists who have written on natural law, were trained in the doctrines of the civil law; and their theories are not only imbued with the learning of that system, but they are almost exclusively applicable to it. Their learned disquisitions and elaborate argumentations, for instance, on slavery, had reference to *predial slaves*—to slaves *glebæ adscripti*, as formerly known in France and Poland, and as at present existing in Russia and Hungary. The slaves of those countries were, and are of the same race with their masters; all of them being alike *Caucasian*. Those writers knew nothing of the system of servitude in the Southern States of this Union; and consequently their abstract treatises are entitled to little or no influence in deciding upon the merits of our "peculiar institution." Nowhere have they settled, and nowhere have they undertaken to settle, that it contravenes the natural law to hold an inferior race in bondage; the law of whose nature is best developed in a state of slavery. Both Puffendorf and Heineccius have made exceptions which tend to strengthen this view. The latter says: "The nature of some is so fitted and prepared for servitude, that they can neither direct their own actions nor furnish their own food and clothing;" and if so, it follows as a necessary corollary, that it must be an act of kindness and humanity, to place them in bondage, and to provide for their wants. It is the neglect of this practical distinction which exists among races, which has been productive of so much error and confusion in the minds of casuists and others. In their belief of an unbending rule of right which shall govern the actions of all men alike, or in their desire to create such a rule, they have forgotten that man's nature is influenced in mental, physical and moral attributes, by the *tutorings* which he has received, by the *customs* with

high he is familiar, by the examples by which he is surrounded, by the wants to which he is subjected, and by the imate under which he is reared.

But the want of clear and distinct ideas upon this subject is not confined to men whose studies have not been directed to such investigations. Mr. Webster, with all his great gifts of mind and heart, was frequently thrown into a fog when he approached the discussion of slavery, as an abstract question. In his speech in the Senate, so late as 1848, on the "exclusion of slavery from the territories," alluding to the Southern States, he says: "They have a system of local legislation on which every rests; while everybody agrees that it is against natural law, *or at least against the common understanding which prevails among men as to what is natural law;*" and then continues: "I do not intend to deny the *validity* of that local law, where it is established; but I say it is, after all, local law." Admitting that he is right in declaring slavery a local law, that does not relieve the inconsistency in which he is involved. It is either against natural law, or it is not. If it is against it, then it is in opposition to the law of God, and no human enactments, no "local laws," can secure its "*validity.*"

A similar patent error has pervaded the judiciary, both North and South, in many of the earlier decisions, and still is known as a truth in most of the so-called free States. Chief Justice Shaw, of Massachusetts, thus expounds the law in a leading case: "Slavery being odious and against natural right, cannot exist except by the force of positive law." That may thus exist, he proceeds to decide: "Each State may, for its own convenience, declare that slaves shall be deemed property, and the laws of personal chattels shall be deemed to apply to them; as, for instance, that they may be bought and sold, delivered, attached, and levied upon; that trespass will lie for an injury done to them, or trover for converting them." He gains: "If a note of hand made in New-Orleans were sued on here, and the defence should be that it was a bad consideration, or without consideration, because given for the price of a slave sold, it may well be admitted that such a defence would not prevail; because the contract was a legal one by the law of the place where it was made." Now, the original position is wrong, if he is right in the other two; and they are so utterly opposed, that no legal learning, no ingenious suistry, can reconcile them.

These citations, from an eminent statesman, and a distinguished judge, are sufficient to illustrate the opinion we ad-

vanced, of the confusion in which the subject is involved. At the time these views were uttered, both were citizens of a state whose Bill of Rights proclaims "all men to be born free and equal," and that "liberty is an inalienable right."

It has been decided, in other free states, that a master does not lose his property in a slave, by merely passing through the territories of those states, or by making a temporary sojourn there: because of the *comity* which exists among nations. This comity of nations means, simply, that regard for the laws and institutions of independent sovereignties, which common politeness dictates, in the intercourse of individuals. But where, and in what code of ethics or of law, was it required, that a sin—a violation of God's law—a trespass upon the inalienable rights of man—should be treated with such tender forbearance and condescension? In all these and similar cases, the judiciary are compelled to meet the question of slavery as a fact, and as a reality; and, at the same time, what to some of them is even more formidable, a ranting, ignorant, and fanatical spirit among the populace. In the conflict between duty and public opinion, in the vain hope to reconcile the two, they have adopted reasoning, which is false, jesuitical, and untenable. Instead of being the tribunes of the people—a break-water against the waves of despotism—it is to be feared they are becoming as ready to truckle to the clamors of the mob, on this subject, as the demagogue or the partisan.

So long, therefore, as these obscurities exist in the natural law—obscurities which a Delphic oracle would be unable to fathom—we deny the authority and ability of self-constituted interpreters to prescribe a rule of action, independent and outside of Revelation, which is, or can be, universal and infallible in its operation, and capable of reaching, alike, all beings who bear the human form. On the contrary, we maintain that, in the diversity of colors and of races which exist on the earth, there is an equal diversity of physical conformation, a still greater diversity of mental organization, and that no law of nature has yet been discovered that harmonizes with the nature of all, and is imperative alike on all. Nomadic nations have a law of their nature, which teaches them to love their wild freedom, and to delight in locomotion, in idleness, and in freebooting; and every attempt to subjugate them to labor for themselves or for others, has resulted in failure. On the other hand, negroes, being by nature lazy, listless, and indifferent, fall into servitude without serious constraint. The color of their skins, and the formation of their eyes, adapt them to hot climates and exposure to the sun; while their robust

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s, low intellectual vigor, want of nervous excitability, habits, and tractable dispositions, peculiarly fit them condition of labor and dependence. In no other state are capable of development. The law of nature thus points, ngly, to the only mode by which their usefulness and ness may be promoted. From the abundance of proof and to establish this statement, we quote, by preference, the celebrated state paper of Mr. Calhoun to the British er, Mr. Pakenham: "The census, and other docu-, show that, in all instances in which the States have ed the former relation between the two races, the condi- of the African, instead of being improved, has become . They have been invariably sunk into vice and pau-, accompanied by the bodily and mental inflictions in- thereto—deafness, blindness, insanity, and idiocy, to a without example; while in all other States which have ed the ancient relation, they have improved greatly, in respect—in number, comfort, and morals, as the fol- g facts, taken from such sources, will serve to illus-

he number of deaf and dumb, blind, idiots, and insane, negroes in the States that have changed the ancient re- between the races, is one out of every ninety-six; while States adhering to it, it is one out of every six hun- d and seventy-two; that is, seven to one in favor of the as compared with the former.

he number of negroes who are deaf and dumb, blind, idi- and insane, paupers, and in prison, in the States that have ed, is one out of every six; and in the States that have ne out of every hundred and fifty-four; or twenty-two against the former, as compared with the latter.

aking the two extremes of North and South:—In the of Maine, the number of negroes returned as deaf and , blind, insane, and idiots, by the census of 1840, is one every twelve; and in Florida, by the same returns, is at of every eleven hundred and five; or ninety-two to n favor of the slaves of Florida, as compared with the lacks of Maine."

tate of bondage, if these facts can be relied on, is consis- with the law of the negro's nature. So far from depres- him, in the social scale, it elevates him; so far from ing him to misery, it promotes his happiness; so far from ering with the law of his increase, it advances it; so far corrupting his morals, or enfeebling the vigor of his con- on, its influence tends to their development and perfec-

tion. It is, therefore, nonsense, a solecism, a gross perversion of the laws which regulate ethical science, to denounce a system fraught with such results, contrary to natural law.

But there is another and larger class of men, opposed to the institutions of the South, who have paid no attention to the speculations of publicists or philosophers. They boldly assume that slavery is contrary to the law of nature, and that every master who holds a person in bondage is guilty of a monstrous wrong, and imperils his immortal soul. The chief authority relied on in support of this empty declaration, is those memorable words in the Declaration of Independence: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." In order to comprehend the full meaning of this sentence, it is necessary, not only to know the circumstances under which it was written, and the ends it proposed to accomplish, but the contending schools of political philosophy should be understood. Scarce a century and a quarter had passed since the English people had led an English monarch from his throne to the block, in vindication of their constitutional freedom, and after a brief period of self-government, a protectorate, and a restoration of the ancient monarchy had ensued. It was during these struggles that one side asserted, "To contest the power of kings, is to dispute the power of God;" while the other vehemently maintained the original political equality of men, and their right to alter, or abolish the form of government under which they lived. It was for advocating these last principles, at war as they were with the law of nature, as expounded by the monarchists, that the noble Vane, the gallant Russell, and the stern Sidney, suffered as traitors. The American colonies, beneath the shades of the wilderness, sympathized with the doctrines, and lamented the fates of those disinterested and patriotic men. Mr. Jefferson, with that far-reaching knowledge of human nature for which he was ever distinguished, took advantage of these feelings, and re-awakened those sentiments by the Declaration of Independence. But, at the same time, he took the extremest ground. He went further than had been advanced by them, or by any writer, ancient or modern, who had enlisted on the side of the rights of man. Even Sidney, of whose work on the "*Science of Government*" Jeffrey said, "There is not a line in it, scarce, but what is treason," falls far short of Mr. Jefferson's ideas, although to his work Mr. Jefferson is indebted for many of his views; indeed, his doctrine of equality is

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diated by that author. Sidney remarks, "that equality is just among equals, is just only among equals. But as are base, ignorant, vicious, slothful, or cowardly, are equal, in natural or acquired virtues, to the generous, wise, int, and industrious, nor equally useful in the societies in which they live. They cannot, therefore, have an equal part in the government of them; they cannot equally provide for common good." Mr. Calhoun expresses, in his "*Disquisition on Government*," the same idea, still more forcibly: "These great and dangerous errors have their origin in the prevalent opinion, that all men are created free and equal; than which nothing can be more unfounded and false. It rests upon the assumption of a fact, which is contrary to universal observation, in whatever light it may be regarded. It is, indeed, difficult to explain how an opinion, so destitute of all sound reason, could have been so extensively entertained. Men," he then proceeds, "instead of being born free and equal, are subject not only to parental authority, but to the laws and institutions of the country where born, and under whose protection they draw their first breath."

In a state of society exists, no government exists, in which, under which, all men are born equal. It is contrary to the law which the Creator has stamped upon the nature and the rights of man. Abstractedly, man may be born to equal natural rights, in countries where no disabilities of colors or sexes are established; where no difference in sex is known, where no distinctions of power or precedence are allowed in favor of the male over the female; and where the hereditary principle, in regard to privileges and property, is abolished; but if such a country can be found, the inequalities of wealth, of mind, morals, passions, instincts, and of physical constitution, will still be presented.

But stronger arguments than even these, showing that Mr. Jefferson's doctrine is the dream of an enthusiast or visionary, was never intended for a practical principle in government, are derived from contemporaneous history. In his list of grievances against England, there is no allusion to slavery or the slave-trade, both of which were originally introduced into the country in opposition to the wishes of the colonists. The principle as that all men are created equal, was entered on the "Articles of Confederation," though those articles had their origin in the same Congress, were considered, adopted, and passed, by the same men who proclaimed the Declaration of Independence. When they came before the assemblies of the different States, no objections were raised

growing out of this omission, and when finally ratified, no amendment of this kind was suggested. Nor is it recognized in the Constitution of the United States. In the debates in the convention, in the compromises which led to the adoption of that instrument, in the controversies which ensued when the question of ratification was presented to the independent local legislatures or conventions, if any such doctrine was maintained it has escaped our notice. Indeed, it is a principle inconsistent with the genius of our government, and inconsistent with the genius of all good government. Though placed in the bill of rights of some of the original thirteen States, it was practically flouted in the body of their respective constitutions, and has been since practically flouted by their laws, by their judiciary, and still more by their people. It may be said to be ignored to this day by every State in the Union. With the exception of one or two Northern States, even nominally, there is no equality of civil and political rights extended to the white and black races. The latter, in the free States, are essentially as degraded in caste, as inferior in rank and condition, as proscribed by the conventions of society, and as effectually under the ban of the law, as the slaves of the South.

The second branch of the proposition, viz. : that life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, are inalienable rights, is equally untenable. If they are inalienable rights they cannot be transferred, sold, nor taken away ; and to do so contravenes the law of God. That is the proposition, stripped of all disguise. If true, every government is a despotism ; every law regulating human action an iniquity ; and the whole framework of society is based upon sin, is a blunder—a fraud and a libel upon humanity. If governments have been instituted by men, and are but aggregations of individuals, what right have they to abridge or alienate those blessings which God has conferred on man, when man himself cannot abridge or alienate them without putting his soul in jeopardy ? A sin in the individual is equally a sin in a number of individuals. The case is not altered because it is done by the arm of the sovereign power, or under the sanction of municipal laws. These sink into insignificance and dwindle into nothingness before the law of nature. Nor is it altered, because it may be intended as a measure of defence and of protection to the largest number ; since no such plea can avail in a case when the law hangs, imprisons, or brands with infamy, a citizen, and takes his labor and property for public purposes, when the same law is so inconsistent as to denounce the same acts

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n the citizen undertakes to do them without the intervention of the state. Nor is it altered, because man, upon the violation of the social compact, surrendered to the constituted authorities the right to inflict punishment upon him in event he violated the law; for, if the rights belonging to him are inalienable, he can no more transfer them to the state than he can to his fellow. Such a concession on the part of the citizen, and the exercise of such a power by the state, are, before, sinful, nugatory, and void. The argument, when carried to this extremity, conclusively proves that man has an inalienable right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, or it proves that all established systems of government are founded in absurdity and wickedness. It proves that Mr. Jefferson was wrong, or that everybody else has been wrong, or yet, and will probably so remain.

The doctrine which the experience and the wisdom of mankind has sanctioned, in our judgment, is this: Life is a gift bestowed upon us for wise purposes from God to man, and it would therefore be ungrateful and impious, from the mere desire of dying, or from his selfishness or passion, or for want of courage to undergo conflicts and temptations that beset his path, or from the impulse of despair, or the gratification of revenge, to perish by his own hand. But it may be an act of the most exalted wisdom and of the purest piety, to offer up his life on the altar of his country; or for the sake of a great principle, or to perform a large good to others. Vattel, in his work adapting the law of nations to the law of nature, expressly maintains this doctrine, and mentions, in high terms of eulogy, that noble Swiss patriot, Arnold de Winkelreid, who, at the battle of Marston, formed the generous design of saving his country by sacrificing himself: "My friends," said he, to his comrades in arms, "I am going this day to give my life to procure you victory." He did so, and his country was saved. The memory of such men is cherished by the universal sentiment of mankind; and, certainly, what strikes every human heart as right cannot be grossly and sinfully wrong. Nor is it contrary to the Divine law, if we may decide the question by the example of that "noble army of martyrs" who have died rather than abandon their religion; or by the veneration in which they are held by the most learned and most conscientious of all Christian lands.

Liberty is a term not easy to define. There are so many varieties, to which the general term is applicable—so many meanings into which, with equal truth, it may be rendered—so many phases in which it has been and may be considered—

so many abstractions which have been attached to it—so many circumstances in the history of man as an individual and as a citizen of the community to which it may be applied—that it is oftentimes difficult to decide upon the distinctions with which it is used by writers, politicians, and publicists. But we take it that in the Declaration of Independence, the reference is to civil liberty, that liberty which a man enjoys, or is entitled to enjoy, as a citizen and a member of society. In this sense it simply means, “protection or checks against undue interference, whether this be from individuals, from masses, or from government. The highest amount of liberty comes to signify the safest guarantees of undisturbed legitimate action, and the most efficient checks against undue interference.” This interpretation, from Dr. Lieber, is adopted ; inasmuch as no civilian, with whose writings we are familiar, has devoted more study to the subject, or has offered a more satisfactory explanation. Liberty, then, is the result of government, and all those vague and unsubstantial theories, which contend that every one who enters into the social compact surrenders a portion of his liberty, unless it be the liberty of the pirate or freebooter, or the liberty of acting wrong, are false and erroneous. In fact man being, by the divine law—the instinct of his nature—social and gregarious, is impelled, by an irresistible impulse, into society, and society, by laws equally imperative, is impelled into government ; such a condition as the natural state—that is, a state of absolute independence, of a distinct and segregate existence—never has existed, and never can exist. So long as man is a dependent creature, so long as affinities between the opposite sexes continue, so long as affection toward offspring and kindred and friends remains in the human bosom, so long as the desire for property forms a part of the nature of man, he will consort and mingle with his fellows, and therefore requires protection from the stronger arm of government, that he may enjoy undisturbed the blessings he has already acquired, and those which he has a hope or a desire of acquiring. Hence, if civil liberty is the result of government, it is not a natural, and, as a consequence, not an inalienable right. The power which conferred it may take it away, under the laws and constitutional forms which have been prescribed. To deprive him of it in any other way is tyranny. If it is not inalienable, man has a right to surrender it ; to sell it, to give it away, or to dispose of it as he thinks proper, provided he makes no infringement upon the rights of others, interferes in no wise with the duties he owes to the state, and is not thus enabled to shield himself

on the influence of its laws. By the old colonial laws of New-York, it was allowable for Christians to hold in bondage such as have willingly sold or shall sell themselves." In-sputably a similar doctrine is recognized by the practice of the Federal Government, which sanctions the right of every citizen to place himself beyond the pale of the law of his nativity by a change of his allegiance. If he chooses, he may become a serf in Russia, a bondman in Arabia, or a slave in Turkey, upon the same principle that he can enter into the galleries of England as a laborer, flourish as a speculator in the funds under the imperial sway of Napoleon, or bow as a subject to the despotism of Spain. It is preposterous to hold, that, while the law will afford a protection to a man who desires to aliene his freehold or his chattels—will aid him to aliene his wife, for a just cause—will allow him, with certain restrictions, to aliene his children, if he chooses—will suffer him to aliene his religion or his country, as his caprice or his interest may dictate—at the same time will deny him the privilege to aliene himself for a number of days, for a term of years, or even for life.

But whether these conclusions be just or not, is immaterial, since Mr. Jefferson had no reference to the personal liberty of the citizen, except as it might be disregarded or trampled on by government, in contempt of law. Contemplating it in this point of view his doctrine is equally at fault, for, within the limits of its constitutional powers, the state can restrain, legitimately, the actions of the individual, in every pursuit in which he embarks, and can punish him for every crime which he commits. It may force him into its armies and navies against his will; it may make him labor on its highways, or serve on its juries, or pay its taxes, or even to neglect his own business to be a witness for another. So, also, if his relation to the state be of such a character that he cannot be otherwise kept in the line of duty, it may compel him to work for his own support; it may imprison him to restrain the violence of his turbulent temper; or, if necessary to a due subjection of his rebellious spirit, it may place a master over him, who shall receive the proceeds of his skill or his industry. These things are actually done in the sanitary police or penal laws of most of the States of this Union, and are embodied in the codes of the best-regulated and freest governments. This being true of the powers and action of governments in reference to those who are technically citizens—it may, for its own security, and for the greater good of its people, and for the greater good of an inferior race, regulate a system of ser-

vitude already existing, or condemn others of the same class to slavery, without trespassing further upon human rights than it does, properly and legitimately, in the instances first cited.

If this reasoning fails to satisfy the candid inquirer that the Declaration of Independence enunciates an evident untruth instead of a self-evident truth, still the opponents of slavery are not advanced in their arguments or their wishes. For neither the authors of that immortal instrument, nor the committee who gave it their approbation, nor the Congress which adopted it, intended to include within its spirit that servile and degraded class of beings, who were then under the laws of the mother-country, and under the legislative enactments and judicial decisions of the colonies, in the condition of slavery. That this proposition is correct it is not difficult to prove. Had the slave population been aimed at as well as the free; many of the ablest and best men in that Congress, including Mr. Jefferson himself, were voluntarily proclaiming their own infamy; since, being slaveholders, they were guilty of an unpardonable and monstrous iniquity. If they had felt that they were treading upon the inalienable rights of the black race, the plain and imperative duty devolved upon them to manumit them instantly. Nor should they have paused then. They ought to have denounced the whole system of slavery as inconsistent with natural laws, as an outrage, and a sin. That those tried and fearless men did nothing of the kind forever disposes of the question. What a portion of them may have done many years afterward, or in their dying bequests, does not weaken this impregnable position.

The idea that slavery as then existing was denounced in the Declaration of Independence, is unsupported by contemporaneous evidence. It is altogether modern. On the contrary, in addition to what has been stated, it should be recollected that the constitutions of all the States continued to recognize slavery until the people of the North learned, from experience, that African labor was unadapted to their ungenial soil, and still more ungenial climate. It was not for the salvation of their souls, or to satisfy their consciences—it was to save their pockets that led to its abolition. And when that was resolved on, it was made prospective, and so gradual in its operation as to be almost unfelt. Had it been in their estimation so great and heinous a sin to hold a slave then as it is now, it would seem that they should have lost not a moment in the work of enfranchisement. It should have been done quickly, promptly, and with hearty-good will. It should have been stricken from their statutes and their laws at once and forever.

ART. VII.—THE NORTH AMERICAN PLAIN—VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI, ETC.

A GREAT theme, truly, considered in its vast extent and unity of character, its adaptation by soil, climate, minerals, and exemption from obstacles, to easy intercourse among its inhabitants; greater still, in view of the wonder-working developments of industry and civilization, now in progress; and greatest of all, in what it is surely destined to become, even in that brief period of time measured by the lives of persons now in being. In extent, it is one of the greatest plains on the earth's surface; stretching northward from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Sea, and bounded on its east and west borders by the crests of the mountain chains of the continent, thousands of miles apart. Below the sixtieth degree of latitude this valley embraces not less than three millions and a half of square miles. Of this vast expanse, not less than two and a half millions of square miles are fertile and in a good climate. Here are sixteen hundred millions of acres ready to yield support, when all its resources are brought into use, to sixteen hundred millions of inhabitants. This would exceed by sixty per cent. the present population of our globe. With a density equal to Belgium, it would contain seven hundred millions; equal to Holland and Great Britain, six hundred millions; to France, four hundred and sixty millions; to Austrian empire and Massachusetts, four hundred millions; or to Prussia, three hundred and ninety millions. This territory will number, in 1860, not less than twenty-two millions; which will increase, during the next twenty years, to not less than forty-five millions. Our estimate for the coming century, is represented by the following figures: 1860, twenty-two millions; 1880, forty-five millions; 1900, eighty millions; 1920, one hundred and forty millions; 1940, two hundred and twenty millions; and in 1960, three hundred and fifty millions. It would then be less densely settled than Massachusetts and the best improved countries of Europe are at this time. Taking into account the probable immigration from the Atlantic border and from Europe, it is scarcely over-sanguine to expect an increase, within the coming century, which will bring the aggregate up to three hundred and fifty millions.

The progress of the twenty-two millions now upon this plain, to three hundred and fifty millions, in 1960, and to a high degree of wealth and refinement, seems to be guaranteed by the facility of intercourse which the uniformity of its general

surface and its magnificent lakes and rivers hold out to their acceptance. It is *one* plain, unbroken by any notable obstruction to easy communication of its various sections with each other. This unity of physical character is being strengthened by iron bands, every day made longer and stronger; and by a motive power in engineering, increasing in cheapness and efficiency year by year, on all the rivers, lakes and railways of the vast area. Raw materials for the motors that, on lake, river, ocean, and railway, are to work out results which, if we could foresee, would appear nothing less than miracles, are provided in the immense coal and iron deposits that are found in every great section of the plain and underlie no small portion of its surface. And not alone on the highways of commerce are these wonder-working motors to manifest their powers. In workshop and mine, on the farm and plantation, and wherever else machinery can be employed, steam will do the work of human muscle, and, by its rapid increase, will augment exchangeable products to an extent scarcely anticipated by the most hopeful optimist of the present day. In considering the proximate future of this North American plain, we should fail to do it justice were we to leave out of view these great sources of immigration—the modern hives of nations, that have begun to send their swarms of superfluous population to settle down on its woodlands and prairies. This immigration, great as it has seemed and as it in truth has been, is but in the commencement of its career. It is not, alone, the country of the ancient Scythians, the Scandinavians, that now sends forth, and which is hereafter to send forth, colonies over the Atlantic, but nearly all Western Europe, in different degrees. The Baltic countries, while sending forth the enterprising sons and daughters of their plains and mountains to every part of the earth, have gone on increasing their numbers at home, so that, since the commencement of the nineteenth century, their population has doubled. Prussia, with a population of six millions in 1800, has increased it to nearly eighteen millions. England has more than doubled her numbers in the same time; while she has been peopling Australia, Canada, and other colonies, sending to our States in the meantime, no inconsiderable number of her sons. The other nations of Western Europe have been increasing and colonizing at a slower rate, but without intermission. It is estimated that, of the two hundred and eighty millions now inhabiting Europe, not less than one hundred millions belong to the dominant race, having a preponderance of Teutonic blood, and being famous for their disposition and ability to

take possession of whatever lands invite their cupidity and enterprise. They are greedy to hold dominion over the soil. In their own country, this greed has directed the use of capital, however earned, to the purchase of land, carrying up the price beyond the means of the less wealthy. These, not cured of their desire to become landholders by the lack of means to gratify it in their native country, cast longing eyes over the ocean toward the great western plain, where their love of independence and their desire to own land may be certainly and cheaply gratified.

The natural increase of this one hundred millions of the ruling race of man, with the fifty millions who partake of his blood, is about two millions a year. In a normal condition of affairs, taking in a series of years, one million of this increase may be expected to seek new homes across the Atlantic. Where else should they go? It must be kept in mind that Caucasian man originated in a cold, or what some would call a temperate climate, in the high grounds if not in the high latitudes of the north temperate zone. The highest type of this man is the Teutonic: dominant wherever he plants himself, but only permanently dominant in high latitudes. Over his own race, who make new homes in a hot clime and lose their native vigor under a sultry sky, he triumphs, as he does over all other races. In his proper clime he rules, either by making his own blood predominate, in a mixture with other races, or by open conquest. In the northern temperate zone, on its elevated table-land, he is supposed to have been created. Asia, the continent of his origin, is, in all its most inviting plains and valleys, filled with people—much of it to repletion. He sees there no field for his colonies. Westward—the direction which, for many centuries, his course of empire has been directed—he sees spread out before him an immense plain, occupying the best part of the northern temperate zone of North America: a plain which all writers of authority, on the physical geography of the earth, admit to be superior, in its capacity to sustain a dense civilized population, to any other; in great part unoccupied, but full of inducements for making it his home—an appropriate home for such a race in which to develop every branch of civilized and civilizing industry. He sees that, permeating this plain, throughout its vast extent, are immense navigable rivers, great inland seas, and a network of iron-ways, made and in progress of construction; that land of the best quality, if not offered to him for the taking, as it probably soon will be, can be bought at from the eighth of a dollar to ten dollars per acre, in full own-

ership : the title, the most perfect possible, coming direct from the original exclusive owner, the Government; that here is established, and in full operation, a government of the people, of whom he may, if he will, become a member; that here are organized systems of education, not excelled in efficiency in the most enlightened nations of the Old World; and that universal toleration in religion and a free press are guaranteed and sustained by all our constitutions of government and by public opinion.

He is no lover of mankind who does not contemplate with delight the field, for the expansion of his race, which is opened to him on this great plain. It seems impossible that any one should be possessed of a reasonable knowledge of its adaptation to the support of hundreds of millions of the most advanced race of human beings without a feeling of exultation at the prospect. We dwell upon it with peculiar pleasure, because we are among its early inhabitants; because it is opening its capabilities with our co-operation. It is our country. Within it, in the lapse of no long space of time, will throb the heart of our nation and of our continent. Nor is it too sanguine to anticipate that at some future period in it will pulsate the heart of humanity. Among all the great plains of the world a revolutionary poet apostrophized it, "Most fruitful thy soil; most inviting thy clime." Although there are plains of greater extent, there is not one, in all the world, with so many natural resources for the support of an equal number of the Caucasian race. The plain watered by the Amazon and Orinoco is not less extended or fertile, but its climate, for the most part, is fatal to Europeans, and only adapted to the tropical races—Indian, Negro, and Malay. The great plains, in the temperate zone of the Old World, are already well peopled, and some of them in a condition to send out colonies. The plain of the temperate zone in South America, of which the Rio de la Plata is the centre, has great extent and innumerable resources: but it has the disadvantages of being far removed from the colonizing nations, and, what is worse, of being in possession, so far as it is settled, of a mixed race of inferior character. Ours, then, is *the* plain of the world. As yet it has but just been touched by the hand of industry. Its life is but of yesterday, and yet it is becoming famous wherever in the world knowledge abounds and interest is taken in the advancement of our race. Gradually the eyes of men are opening to the commanding position which a few years, as counted in the life of a nation, will give it in the world's affairs. The rapid dissemination, through the

civilized world, of geographical knowledge, embracing ethnological and meteorological facts, is such that no long time can elapse before the claims of our North American plain to become the principal theatre of human power will be generally admitted. As this conviction gradually takes possession of the minds of men, there will be manifested an increasing desire to make it a home: not alone by the landless and needy classes, as, to a considerable extent, it has been hitherto, but also by the richest and most cultivated classes. It will be the rising sun to men's visions, until it shall become the noon-day sun to the nations. Universal belief, following universal history, has established the fact, that Westward the star of empire takes its way. The star of empire, now shining over the western shores of Europe, is becoming visible to our continent. When it crosses the Atlantic, it will stand over, and, as we fondly hope, shine for ages and ages from the zenith on our central plain. This glorious vision is only to become a reality by the co-operative aid of the great body of enlightened men of other countries. Europe, by the grand development of forces lately brought into operation, is by our side. Steam, operating on the machinery which it has called into life, has, within the present century, made of Europe one family, and brought the continents of the Old and the New World almost into virtual contact. Working the printing press, it has poured newspapers, pamphlets, and books, into nearly all the houses of Christendom; moving machinery for textile fabrics, it clothes all nations; scorning the aid, and defying the opposition of winds and waves, it moves over the waters immense store-houses of merchandise and colonies of people from country to country, equalizing and giving to all shores the natural productions of all climes and the industrial productions of all nations; over all lands, where labor and its fruits are protected, it has aided to prepare its level and smooth iron-ways, on which, drawn by its magic power, the swift wheels of commerce roll the people and the results of their labor, from city to city, from state to state, and from clime to clime. Who can fully comprehend the immense results, in the production of wealth, which steam-operating machinery is now effecting? It is probably not extravagant to assert that, for years, steam power over the civilized world has been increased at the annual rate of twenty per cent. New applications of its power are every day brought into use. Enthusiastic John Fitch coveted the glory of introducing steam-propelled vessels on the Ohio and other great rivers of the West. He did not over-estimate its value, to that region, of that long-since-accomplished result.

But he probably did not foresee that steam power would, in no long period of time, find, in the interior plain, the best field for its power over all its broad surface: as well in the villages, towns, and cities, as on the great waters; as well on the farms and plantations as in the cities; and, with Briarean arms, embrace and connect together all in one brotherhood of interest and friendship. It would be extremely interesting to know how much labor, expressed in man-power and horse-power, is now being performed by steam in our plain, and what is its yearly increase. Of the twenty-two millions now in the great plain, probably seven millions would represent the man-power exercised in the various industrial occupations by the human muscle. The animal-power and water-power in use are much greater, but we have no means of getting their statistics, and we must therefore leave them to conjecture. Steam-power is rapidly gaining on all others, and is, beyond doubt, already more used than any other, if not than all others.

What are the principal gateways through which the commerce of *this great plain* will be carried on with the rest of the world? Nature has not left this in doubt. The Mississippi river, with its 18,000 miles of steam navigation, penetrating, by its own channel and by its numerous affluents, the richest and most extensive portion of the plain, opens on the Gulf of Mexico, around and near which lie the most productive tropical regions of the world, and through or near which the commerce of two great oceans with each other is seeking and just beginning to find an appropriate passage-way. The shores of the Gulf, exclusive of bays, islands, &c., are, in extent, nearly 4,000 miles, of which nearly half belong to our republic. From this Gulf are four great channels, or routes of commerce: *first*, and most important, is that by the Mississippi; *second*, and probably second in future commercial value, is that by the isthmus of Tehuantepec, by which the exchange commerce of the Gulf and Pacific Ocean is probably to be carried on; *third*, the channel between the keys of Cape Florida and Cuba, and known as the Florida channel or strait; and, *fourth*, the channel of Yucatan, which opens into the Caribbean sea.

It is impossible to estimate the amount of commerce which will be controlled by the Tehuantepec Isthmus. A railway 140 miles long, may be made to traverse it, which will bring together the accumulated commerce of the Pacific Ocean with that of the North American plain; of the shores of the Gulf, and possibly, also, that of the Atlantic with its wide range of shores, in Europe, Africa, and South America. It will cer-

mainly be the passage-way for commerce between the great plain and the Pacific coasts, north of its own latitude. A ship canal may some day be made across the isthmus, at some other point, connecting the two oceans by way of the Caribbean Sea. This would not lessen the importance, to the great plain, of the commerce with the Pacific. It would give it another and better channel, in addition to the Tehuantepec railway. How extensive this Pacific commerce is destined to become, few will be sanguine enough to fully appreciate. The productions of commerce are being multiplied among civilized nations, in a geometrical ratio: correspondingly rapid will be the increase of people and their products, in the central plain. The opening of China, Japan, and eastern Russia, to the commerce of the world, promises the inauguration of a new era in commercial developments, which can hardly fail to be felt with peculiar force on the isthmus transit, and through it upon the great plain. We will not, here, put down the numbers inhabiting the populous shores of eastern Asia, or the less populous coasts of western North America. Suffice it to say, that they amount to about half of all the inhabitants of the earth, and embrace a large portion of its industry and skill. Any one, not already familiar with the numbers and resources of these countries, can easily satisfy himself of their great and growing importance. That the bulk of this commerce will pass the isthmus, instead of taking a railroad across the broad continent, by way of San Francisco or other Pacific ports, there seems to us little room for doubt. We have no faith in the construction of such a road during the next twenty years; and when it is built, we think it will fail to draw away from the isthmus and Mississippi route, any large proportion of the tonnage passing between the Pacific coasts and our great valley. We could dwell with pleasure on the ease with which the productions of the gulf borders, rich in all the vegetable productions which a tropic sun brings forth from the teeming soil, can be exchanged for the multiplied products of industry brought forth in a colder climate from the soil and the workshop, prepared by the hand of industry and skill in the hundred cities of the plain: and the facility of intercourse, by which the people of different climes may interchange hospitalities and mingle interests and sympathies; escaping tropic heats, and enjoying the invigorating breezes of the lakes in summer; and in winter, basking in the genial sun of the gulf coasts.

To recur to the sources of emigration, by the aid of which the great plain is shortly to be well peopled. Emigrants from

France, Spain, and other countries bordering the Mediterranean will naturally enter the plain by the Mexican gulf; as will also a portion of those who embark at ports beyond the British channel. But the great body of emigrants, those who take ships at the ports of the United Kingdom, the North sea, and the Baltic, will enter the great plain by way of the St. Lawrence valley, the opening of which into the Atlantic, constitutes the natural gateway to the plain from the East. The advantages which the St. Lawrence channel offers for intercourse between the great marts of commerce of the world and the great plain, are manifest and commanding. It opens on the Atlantic, near the great track of navigation between North America and Europe, and penetrates, by its lake expansions, into the heart of the continent; thus, in effect, extending ocean navigation almost to the centre of the great plain. By means of canals, all the great lakes have an unobstructed communication with the ocean for sea-going vessels of three hundred tons.

By an enlargement of these canals, now in progress and not long to be delayed, steam-vessels, of from eight to twelve hundred tons burden, will be enabled to pass between the great lakes and the Atlantic. Thus, will the line of great lakes become an extension of the ocean, for all purposes of commerce. Bordering these lakes, are the most populous and flourishing States of our Republic and the not less flourishing province of Canada. New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Minnesota, contain a population of over twelve millions, of whom at least six millions use the lakes as their chief channel of commerce. The British provinces, to wit, the Canadas, New Brunswick, Nova-Scotia, &c., have a present population of three millions, inhabiting the northern shores of the lakes and both shores of the St. Lawrence river and gulf. Here, then, are a people, hardy, industrious, enterprising, and intelligent, numbering nine millions, a great portion of whom have recently established their homes on and near these fertile shores; whose industry, already, according to the highest official authorities, has created a commerce, the annual value of which has reached six hundred millions, and whose increase in numbers, from year to year, may be reasonably reckoned at over five per cent., and whose progress in wealth will give a duplication, in periods not exceeding ten years. The shore line of this great mediterranean group of seas, according to Col. Abert, measures over six thousand miles. The shores of the St. Lawrence river and gulf, forming a part of this immense system of inland waters, measure more than three thousand

iles. Here are over nine thousand miles of shore accessible to the shipping of the whole maritime world ; and, opening by an immense mouth toward Great Britain, into and near which the chief commerce of Europe centres. It especially invites the commerce of Europe north of Spain, and all north-eastern America. Into this region, so well appreciated and so inviting to the hardy people of northern and middle Europe, the great tidal wave of colonization is pouring, in numbers, annually counting by hundreds of thousands. The States, territories, and colonies, which have their chief commercial intercourse through these lakes, embracing a considerable portion of the upper Mississippi valley, are the favorite locations for the main body of these colonists.

We have spoken of the *two* great channels of communication opening the *North American Valley* to the rest of the world : that, by the mouth of the Mississippi, to the tropical regions of the Gulf and adjacent waters, and across the isthmus, to the great commerce of the Pacific ocean ; and that by the St. Lawrence system of waters to the shores of Europe and of all other countries bordering the Atlantic, through all its climates, keeping out of view other channels, which to some extent compete with these great natural gateways. Mobile and Galveston bays, in some degree participate in the exchange commerce between the Atlantic waters and the great plain ; and, by means of steam on rivers and railways, will probably preserve such share as to keep a wholesome competition sufficient to prevent the evils of monopoly.

The St. Lawrence gateway has a more powerful rival, in New-York bay. The Appalachian chain of mountains, the natural barrier between the great plain and the Atlantic border, is severed where the Hudson and Mohawk rivers have their passage way, and where Lake Champlain occupies the low valley between the Adirondack and Green mountains ; so that New-York bay and the great lakes, Ontario and Erie and Lake Champlain, can hold commercial intercourse, unimpeded by mountains, and greatly facilitated by the Hudson and Mohawk rivers and by Lake Champlain. Along the valleys of the Mohawk and Lake Champlain, and connected with the navigable waters of the Hudson, are canals and railroads, which have diverted from the main channel, by the mouth of the St. Lawrence, the largest portion of the commerce of the great lake region with the old States of our Union and with Europe. A contest is in progress between the Canadian government, backed by the mother-country, on one side, and the State of New-York on the other side, for supremacy in

this already immense commerce. By means of canals and locks around the falls of St. Mary's, Niagara, and St. Lawrence rivers—the governments of the Canadas and the State of Michigan have furnished a clear water-way for vessels of moderate tonnage, between all the great lakes, including Lake Superior and the Atlantic waters; so that a growing direct commerce has recently sprung up at several of the lake cities with ports in Europe, the West Indies, and South America. As before remarked, this channel is to be improved by the enlargement of canals and locks, so as to pass large steam-propelling ships, between lake and ocean. On the other hand, the State of New-York has nearly finished the enlargement of her canals, by which boats of 250 tons will pass directly between lakes Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, and the ocean harbor of New-York. To enhance the value of these canals, steam is being applied, with apparent success, to the propulsion of the vessels which navigate them. The diversion from the natural channel—the St. Lawrence river—which New-York, in the infancy of the lake country settlements, accomplished by the opening of her small canals to the lakes, in 1825, has had the principal agency in swelling the importance of that metropolis, and increasing her population from 140,000 to about one million, including her dependent suburbs. To what extent a *direct trade between ocean and lakes* will prove advantageous through the present channels, it requires more experience to prove. One firm has advertised for twenty-five vessels to be chartered, for cargoes, from lake ports to ports on the Atlantic, the present season. Success may ultimately depend on the use of improved motors, whether of steam or something else, in *water transport*, and also on the fitness of the channels provided by the rival powers.

A ship canal, to connect the navigable waters of the Hudson with the St. Lawrence, near Montreal, using Lake Champlain, as far as it goes, is entirely feasible, at a cost, according to the size of the canal and locks, of from ten to twenty millions. It would be equally feasible, though much more costly, to enlarge, to ship-canal size, the canal from Oswego to Albany. With either of these channels open to such vessels as are best adapted to navigate the lakes and enter the harbors of their cities, New-York might still retain the greatest share of the lake commerce with the outer world. Owing to the difficulty of keeping open, to a greater depth than twelve feet, the harbors and channels of the lakes, it does not seem likely that vessels of greater draught than twelve feet will be constructed. What new models may be contrived, adapted alike to lake and

ocean navigation, to carry the maximum of freight with the use of the minimum of power, and what new contrivances of propulsion may come into use, no one can foresee. It is certain that improvement, in water transport, has not arrived at its culminating point. On the contrary, it seems to us that, among the most rational anticipations of future progress, the cheapening of water transport, by new inventions and new applications of old inventions and machinery, is to be unhesitatingly acknowledged. Until man has accomplished the feat of so using the powers of nature and art, as to attain for his vessels the swiftness through the water of the most rapidly moving fish, he will not have reached the extreme limit of the possible; and we look with confidence to the coming age for great progress in navigation, toward this limit.

It may not be amiss, before closing this article, to ask attention to another route, chiefly by water, which the northern portion of the plain may, at some future time, use extensively for its exterior commerce. We refer to the route by way of Lake Winnipeg, the Saskatchewan river, Rocky mountain pass, and Fraser, or Columbia river to its mouth; and, in another direction, from Lake Winnipeg and Nelson river to Hudson Bay.

If this article had not already been sufficiently extended, we would compare the merits of the principal railroad routes, between the great plain and the cities through which is transacted its foreign and coast commerce.

Our silence respecting railroads as instruments of commerce, must not be construed as a lack of appreciation of these invaluable instrumentalities. For the carrying of people and merchandise requiring rapid movement, our canals, lakes, and rivers do not compete, nor are they likely to compete with them. But as they are still the *fashion*, as they have lately been the *rage* of our time, railways need no invitation to the public, to canvass or appreciate their merits.

The interchange of productions of the different climates, and the various industries of the great plain, within itself, is a subject worthy a distinct treatment, in an article specially devoted to its present condition and prospective development.

J. W. S.

ART. VIII.—A SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY: ITS PROSPECT, RESOURCES, AND DESTINY.

THE oft-repeated aggressions of the North, together with that disastrous system of compromises, by which the South has been defrauded of her just rights, will force upon the Southern people, at no distant day, the alternative of "Submission in the Union, or Independence out of it."

That this is the end to which we are hastening, who, that is acquainted with the history of the Union for the past forty years, can doubt? It appears to be the settled policy of the North to trample upon the rights of the South, and reduce her to an inferior position. She will soon consummate her designs, unless the South cast aside all indecision, and set up a government for herself. The North already has the majority in the councils of the nation, and she is rapidly acquiring such a majority as will enable her to alter the Constitution so as to subserve her aggressive policy. In the Senate, that bulwark of Southern liberty, she is already in the majority; Minnesota, Oregon, and Kansas, will soon greatly augment that majority. In the House of Representatives, she has a majority of fifty-four out of two hundred and thirty-four members. Now, if the North, in less than ten years, adds four new States to her interests, while the South remains stationary, how long will it take her to acquire the requisite majority of two thirds to overturn the Constitution?

In order to answer this question, and fully to comprehend its importance, let us examine the resources of the North. She has Nebraska, Kansas, Oregon, Minnesota, and Washington, embracing an area of nearly a million of square miles, which, if divided into States of a hundred thousand square miles each, would form ten States. The South can expect no accession to her ranks from this vast domain. Kansas, to whom she might have looked for an ally, has declared against her. Minnesota and Oregon have likewise ranged under the Free State banner. Nebraska and Washington, together with all the States that may be carved out of them, will doubtless follow their example. The only hope of extension that the South has, is from Utah, New-Mexico, and Indian territories. Even this is but a feeble hope. Is it likely that the North, which has Europe in addition to her own population to draw her emigrants from, will permit us quietly to occupy these territories? Let the history of Kansas answer. Must we renew the disgraceful scenes enacted within her borders? Must we obtain by such struggles, that which is our natural right?

But admitting that such a struggle as that of Kansas is no more to be renewed ; that both North and South are willing to let the natural tide of emigration determine the political condition of the territories ; what then ? What hope is there for the South ? Emigration from the South cannot compete with that from the North, backed by the thousands that are yearly poured in from Europe. The natural consequence will follow, that Northern principles will predominate, and every new State will but serve to swell the power of the North.

Doubtless there are many in the South, who dissent from this view. There are those who think they discern the dawning of a brighter day for the South. They tell us that the people of the North are awakening to a just perception of our rights ; that they are about to throw off the shackles of their political demagogues. But what guarantee have we of their abandonment of the policy so persistently followed for the last forty years ? Having once tasted the sweets of power, they will not willingly relinquish it. If the last presidential election has any significance, we think the South can derive little consolation from it. In that election the Black Republican candidate received 114 electoral votes ; what will he receive in 1860 ? We think he will receive enough to elect him. Will the South remain in the Union under a Black Republican president ? Never ! The day that witnesses the inauguration of a Black Republican president, will witness the dissolution of this Union !

It may also be argued that there is a large conservative body of the Northern people, who will maintain the rights of the South. There is, doubtless, such a body ; but of what avail will they be to us, unless they are able to give expression to their sentiments in the halls of Congress, by electing suitable men ? As long as they are in the minority the opposition will send men who will be adverse to our interests. Neither have we the assurance that this conservative minority will become, in time, the majority ; on the contrary, we think it more probable they will decrease. At present, there are in the national legislature many Northern men who stand "shoulder to shoulder" with those from the South. We must not place too much reliance upon these, however ; for they may desert us in the hour of our greatest need. Witness the course of Douglas upon the Kansas question. Here was a man who stood high in the confidence of the South, and who probably would have received the suffrages of her people at the next presidential election. When such men desert us, our confidence in our allies must necessarily be shaken.

there are many high-toned men in the Northern delegation, who would scorn to play the part of a traitor ; who *profess* to be our friends, and *are such*. As long as such men are in the national councils it may be well ; but their places may be filled by others inimical to us. Thus we see that we must not depend too much upon our Northern allies.

Judging from the past, we cannot rely upon the promises of the North for the future. We gave our assent to the Missouri Compromise, thus relinquishing our right to a portion of the public domain, that we might peaceably enjoy the remainder. But we were not permitted quietly to reap the fruit of our sacrifices. When, in 1850, California applied for admission into the Union, instead of being admitted as a slaveholding State, according to the Missouri Compromise, she came in as a free State. Thus was the South robbed of 188,000 square miles of territory, for which she had freely poured out her treasure and her blood. Thus was the equality of the South in the Senate destroyed.

The next step of the North, in pursuance of her policy, was the famous Kansas-Nebraska Act, which, under the pretence of restoring to the South her just and equal right to the public territory, prepared the way for the final ascendancy of the North. This measure received the support of Southern representatives. So far as principle went, it was an act of justice toward us deserving of our support, as it admitted the *equal right* of the South, with the North, to all the public domain. But was not the adoption of this Kansas-Nebraska Act a "jumping from the *frying-pan* into the *fire*?" Under the Missouri Compact we had a *portion* of the public territory secured to us (at least for a time), against which the hordes of free-soil emigrants could not avail : by disannulling that compact, we cast from us our only hope of territorial extension. True, we lost California in spite of that agreement ; but we are ourselves chargeable for it. If the united South had presented to the North the alternative of *California for the South, or Disunion*, she would have obtained her just right in the Union, or the issue, which sooner or later will be forced upon her, would have been met, and the problem of a Southern Confederacy, ere this, would have been solved.

When Senator Douglas introduced his Kansas-Nebraska Act, it received the support of Southern representatives, who regarded it as an acknowledgment of the principle for which the South has ever contended : *the equal right of the slaveholding with the non-slaveholding States to the public domain*. The act was passed and became the law of the land. The clouds

disappeared from the political horizon, and all became calm and serene. Peace once more shed her benignant beams over the land; Stephen A. Douglas, the prime mover in this scheme of pacification, became the leader of our Northern allies, and one of the foremost champions of the Democratic party.

But soon the tocsin of strife was heard throughout the length and breadth of the land. The Douglas Compromise proved to be but a short *truce*, instead of a *lasting peace*. The North organized her Aid Societies for the purpose of forcing free-soil emigration into Kansas, and thus wresting her from the South. Roused from her dreams of security, the South determined to meet the enemy with his own weapons. Emigrants were sent to Kansas to maintain our rights, and, if possible, secure her to the South. The war of sections here assumed a new and threatening aspect; armed bands were arrayed against each other; and a struggle impended, which threatened to shake the Union to its very foundations.

Happily, the strong arm of federal authority was stretched out to rescue the country from impending dissolution. Bloodshed was prevented, and the belligerents determined to appeal to the ballot-box. The constitution was submitted to the people for their ratification. The free-soil men refused to vote; the consequence was that a pro-slavery constitution was adopted by the pro-slavery party, under which Kansas applied for admission into the Union. The anti-slavery members of Congress refused her admittance. Douglas, the valiant champion of the South, deserts her now, in the hour of her need, and enlists under the free-soil banner. In the Senate, the South, aided by her Northern allies, triumphed; but in the House she was defeated. In this extremity, a *Compromise*, the usual resource, was agreed upon. The constitution must be referred to the people of Kansas. The free-soil party being in the majority, the constitution is rejected, and Kansas is lost to the *South!*

Such are the first fruits of the Kansas-Nebraska Act; by them we are taught to expect nothing in the future but submission to oppression. Emigration from the North will always exceed that from the South; Northern principles must preponderate, and each new State that comes into the Union, will but serve to swell the power of our oppressors, and forge tighter the chains of oppression upon the Southern people. Will the South submit? We think not.

From the foregoing facts we draw the following conclusion: *that* the South has nothing to expect from Northern forbearance while she remains in the Union. *If she adheres to*

the principles embodied in the Kansas-Nebraska act, the *equal right of the South with the North to the public territory*, the North, by her greater facilities for sending out emigrants, will prevent her from ever deriving any benefit from this adhesion to principle. If, on the other hand, she restores the Missouri Compromise, which would secure to her a *portion* of the common territory, she would do so at the sacrifice of principle. The advantage to be derived from such a measure, would prove only temporary. We could only prevent such States from *coming in* as free-soil; we could not prevent them from changing their constitutions as soon as they became sovereign States. The free-soilers being in the majority, as doubtless will be the case, they can change the political character of the States, and carry them against the South.

Thus, we see, that, turn where we will, we are thwarted. If we adhere to principle, we do so at the expense of power; if we sacrifice principle for power, it will prove but *transitory*.*

In view of all these facts, what hope is there for the South? Why should we desire longer to preserve the Union, which promises nothing but degradation and ruin? Why should we longer kiss the hand that smites us, and help it to drive the dagger into our bosoms? Perhaps we shall be taunted as *disunionists*. Well, be it so; if disunion be a desire to free ourselves from the yoke of bondage—to insure that liberty for which our fathers bled—then do we glory in the name of *disunionists*!

Every consideration of duty and of interest calls upon the South to dissolve her connection with the North. A confederacy of the Southern States would become one of the most powerful nations on the face of the earth. She has all the elements for forming a mighty nation. She now embraces within her limits a territory of 850,000 square miles, capable of sustaining a population of 100,000,000, with only half the density of that of Great Britain. Her agricultural wealth is unrivalled, consisting of articles of vital importance to the civilized world, the loss of one of which, would plunge the world into almost inextricable confusion! She produces cotton, tobacco, rice, and cane sugar; staples peculiar to herself, which the North cannot produce. What staple does the North

* The foregoing remarks were written before the results of the recent elections at the North became known. From these returns I see no reason to change the views here expressed, but rather a confirmation of them.

produce that the South cannot? Wheat, Indian corn, oats, potatoes, and hay, are all produced at the South, to a greater or less extent. The agricultural productions of the South for the year 1850, were fully equal to those of the North. We are prepared to prove this assertion by figures, gathered from the last census.

PRODUCTS.	SOUTHERN STATES.		NORTHERN STATES.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton, lbs.	987,626,000	\$108,638,000		
Rice, lbs.	215,313,000	7,535,000		
Tobacco, lbs.	185,000,000	18,500,000	14,752,000	\$1,475,000
Raw sugar, lbs.	247,577,000	14,854,000		
Refined sugar, lbs.	2,088,000	125,000	32,161,000	1,929,000
Foliaceous, galls.	12,700,000	3,810,000	1,286,000	386,000
Corn, bushels.	349,057,000	139,622,000	242,618,000	97,047,000
Wheat, bushels.	27,910,000	25,119,000	72,057,000	64,851,000
Oats, bushels.	49,891,000	18,709,000	96,590,000	36,221,000
Rye, bushels.	1,613,000	1,451,000	12,574,000	11,316,000
Rish potatoes, bushels.	7,733,000	3,093,000	57,907,000	23,162,000
Sweet potatoes, bushels.	37,145,000	14,858,000	1,122,000	448,000
Hay, tons.	1,140,000	11,400,000	12,698,000	126,980,000
		\$369,714,000		\$363,815,000

When we take into consideration the difference in the population of the two sections, the production of the South greatly exceeds that of the North. The population of the fifteen southern or slaveholding States, in 1850, amounted, in round numbers, to 9,664,000, while that of the North amounted to 3,434,000. This gives a production of \$38 for every man, woman, and child, in the South, against \$27 for each individual in the North. There are, of course, many other products not enumerated, which will not, however, materially alter the table given above. We think these figures should convince any reasonable person, either North or South, of the value of the South.

Some one may meet us here with the objection that this is not a fair comparison between the two sections; that the South is essentially *agricultural*, and her wealth consists principally of the fruits of the earth; while the North is an *agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial power*. Granted; but what principally has created and still fosters the cotton manufactures and commerce of the North? Is it not the *agriculture of the South*? Some men will not be convinced without the figures are produced; we will therefore annex the

is of the exports of the Union, from 1821 to 1855
e.

Southern Products Exported, 1821 - 1855.				Northern products exported 1821 - 1855.
Cotton.	Tobacco.	Rice.	Total Amount.	Sundries.
\$20,157,000	\$5,798,000	\$1,494,000	\$27,449,000	\$13,300,000
24,035,000	6,380,000	1,553,000	31,968,000	14,665,000
20,445,000	6,437,000	1,820,000	28,702,000	14,929,000
21,947,000	5,059,000	1,882,000	28,888,000	17,011,000
36,846,000	6,288,000	1,925,000	45,059,000	15,879,000
25,025,000	5,557,000	1,917,000	32,499,000	15,764,000
29,359,000	6,816,000	2,343,000	38,518,000	15,208,000
22,487,000	5,480,000	2,620,000	30,587,000	15,148,000
20,575,000	5,185,000	2,514,000	34,274,000	16,601,000
29,674,000	6,833,000	1,986,000	37,493,000	16,766,000
25,289,000	5,184,000	2,016,000	32,489,000	21,776,000
31,724,000	6,295,000	2,152,000	40,171,000	16,016,000
36,191,000	6,044,000	2,744,000	44,979,000	19,601,000
49,448,000	6,923,000	2,122,000	58,493,000	16,878,000
64,961,000	8,608,000	2,210,000	75,779,000	19,802,000
71,284,000	10,494,000	2,548,000	84,326,000	16,085,000
63,240,000	6,223,000	2,309,000	71,772,000	21,128,000
61,556,000	7,969,000	1,721,000	71,246,000	17,290,000
61,238,000	10,449,000	2,460,000	74,147,000	21,209,000
63,870,000	10,697,000	1,942,000	76,509,000	27,652,000
54,330,000	13,450,000	2,010,000	69,790,000	26,589,000
47,593,000	10,066,000	1,907,000	59,566,000	24,072,000
49,119,000	4,929,000	1,625,000	55,673,000	16,644,000
54,063,000	8,933,000	2,182,000	65,178,000	24,890,000
51,739,000	8,008,000	2,160,000	61,907,000	26,213,000
42,767,000	9,174,000	2,564,000	54,505,000	36,666,000
53,415,000	7,901,000	3,605,000	64,921,000	75,635,000
61,998,000	8,119,000	2,331,000	72,448,000	44,477,000
86,396,000	6,417,000	2,569,000	75,382,000	47,324,000
71,984,000	10,599,000	2,631,000	85,214,000	36,453,000
112,315,000	10,362,000	2,170,000	124,847,000	37,541,000
87,657,000	11,348,000	2,471,000	101,476,000	39,716,000
109,456,000	12,990,000	1,657,000	124,103,000	49,735,000
93,596,000	11,566,000	2,634,000	107,796,000	84,314,000
88,143,000	16,212,000	1,717,000	106,072,000	63,957,000
\$1,829,922,000	\$287,793,000	\$76,511,000	\$2,194,226,000	\$990,964,000

, it will be seen, the South, in thirty-five years, contributed \$2,194,226,000 to the exports of the country, against \$4,000 contributed by the North; being more than two

It must be borne in mind that the exports of the South were from cotton, tobacco, and rice, alone, and every article has been credited to the North in the above table. It is evident that the South must have exported a large portion of the articles credited to the North; we think one fourth at least. Deduct this one fourth from the exports of the North, and add them to those of the South, and the latter will overbalance the former more than three to one. Of the exports attributed to the North \$92,189,000 are for Southern Cotton

In 1850, there were consumed in the Union, 641,240 bales of cotton, of which the North took 526,980 bales, valued at \$29,871,332. The capital invested amounted to \$64,361,775 to the North alone ; value of products, \$52,502,853. What would become of this interest, if the supply of Southern cotton should be cut off ? What would become of the immense mercantile marine of the country ? What would become of the great metropolis, New-York ? The ships would rot at her docks ; grass would grow in Wall street and Broadway ; and the glory of New-York, like that of Babylon and Rome, would be numbered with the things that are past !

In view of these facts, so pregnant with good for the South, what doubt can exist of the practicability of a Southern Confederacy ? In cotton she possesses a weapon more formidable than all the inventions of modern warfare. England will ever be held in check by this model king ; for she dare not risk revolution at home, by depriving millions of her people of their support. The North would be compelled to compete on equal terms with her in supplying us with cotton manufactures, for then there would be no protective tariff to foster Northern manufactures at the expense of the South.

The difficulty of uniting the Southern States in a Confederacy, is another stumbling-block in the way of some Southerners. This appears to us but a feeble obstacle. If the South is so attached to the Union as to suffer many wrongs rather than dissolve it, and is willing to abide by the present Constitution, or rather by that which our fathers framed, certainly she cannot object to adopt its principles in the event of a Southern Confederacy. Certain alterations may be rendered necessary by the different state of things ; but the groundwork will remain intact. Southern statesmen will have a far easier task than did the sages who framed the present Constitution. They will have the advantages of witnessing the working of our republican system, and be able to correct its errors.

Let the South but be convinced of her ability to sustain herself out of the Union, and disunion, which to too many is now a bugbear, will be looked upon with complacency. Let the South but be united, and she will be able to bid defiance to the North, take her destiny in her own hands, and go forth queen among the nations of the earth.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—MANAGEMENT OF COTTON ESTATES.

ON several occasions we have given to our readers the rules and regulations adopted by our largest cotton and sugar planters in the management of their estates. The following "Hints and Observations" are by a Mississippi planter, and we are indebted for them to Messrs. Bloomfield, Steel & Co. of New-Orleans:

MANAGER: You have engaged me your entire services for the year, no portion of which are you justified in taking away by company, or absenting yourself, going to town or gatherings—for two important reasons: one, your time belongs to me; the other, your place is with the negroes. You then know what and how they are doing their work, and they will not be liable to be punished the next day for work which *you may think they could have done*; by being with them, you may see the reason why they could not, or by a timely urging of them to their duty, avoid the necessity of punishment. By close attention to the interests of your employer, and the determination, under no circumstances, to neglect the same, you may assuredly expect to raise yourself, not only in his estimation, but of all those needing the services of a good manager.

TREATMENT OF NEGROES.—You are not allowed to take hold of the negroes to whip them, nor to beat them with sticks or clubs, or in any other manner than the most usual with the assistance of the driver and the other negroes.

If he starts to run, and the other negroes will not stop him for you, let him go.

I wish them well fed, and clothed suitable for all the seasons, and not unreasonably exposed to the weather, and moderately but steadily worked. My object being more for a fair crop than a large one; in order to accomplish this, it will be necessary for you to have, at all times, your work for days ahead, carved out—not only for fair but for foul weather; and above all, the best and most suitable tools in readiness, so there need not be one moment's delay. And the better to arrange this, you must have a place for everything and keep everything in its place.

One other thing I wish distinctly understood, my negroes are allowed to lay their complaints and grievances before me—of the justice and the remedy I will judge. To punish them for this, I will deem an insult to me, and you may consider your dismissal in preparation, and notice thereof will be given.

QUARTER.—Do you examine each cabin, to see if all are comfortable! Are the houses clean; also the yards and under the cabins! Do they keep their bedding and clothes clean, and have they mosquito bars! Have they plenty of wood, convenient to use in bad weather! Are the fireplaces and chimney-backs in good order! Are all the cisterns full of water, and the pumps in good working order! Be sure this is the case on the 15th day of March, then turn the gutters off, but so they will not be injured, but ready for use any moment. A full supply of pure water will go far to insure health, and under no circumstances should what is called seepage water be used.

HOSPITAL.—Are all your medicines fresh and suitable for all cases? Do you keep them corked, so they will not become worthless, and are all in their place! Have you the house suitable for all seasons, both for the men and the women! And do you visit the sick three times a day in all cases, and in bad ones do you keep a special nurse, in addition to calling in a physician! Prompt attention and good nursing will arrest many diseases that would otherwise prove fatal.

CHILDREN.—Their house must be comfortable: their nurse must be always with them; they must have plenty of suitable food in addition to meat, bread, vegetables, and broth, molasses and buttermilk, and at all times suitably clothed for the season. The mothers must not be overtaken, but allowed full time to

re them proper care and attention, and, if possible, arrange their work near the arter. This will save the risk of overheating in walking to and from.

Stock.—How many stock cattle have you? How many cows and calves? What attention do you give them, and what arrangements have you for their protection? How many sheep have you, and where do they range, and have you any shelter for their protection? How many stock hogs have you? How many swine and pigs have you, and how do you take care of them? Have you shelters protect them from the rain and storms? Do you give them corn once a day, and do you give hulled cotton seed regularly each day to all your hogs? Good stables for all your stock, kept clean and dry, will protect them against the cold of winter, and enable them to make a vigorous growth in the spring.

Mules.—Do you crush your feed for them, corn and cob, and keep rock salt near them all the time? How many currycombs have you, and are they used? Do you give them free access to water, and how often do you feed them? Do you ever use copperas or sulphur in their troughs? Have they any pasture to run on when not at work? Are they well protected from the weather, and have you good racks and troughs for their food? A few acres in rye or winter oats, and occasionally steaming their food, will go far to keep them in good order, and save your corn at least twenty-five per cent.

Work-Shops.—Have you sufficient shelter and house-room for all your tools, wagons, carts, &c., and do you keep them in places? Have you plenty of well-seasoned timber, suitable for all your farm work during the next twelve months, with: plow-beams, plow-handles, harrows, wagon-bodies, axletrees, spokes, wheels, and hubs? Have you suitable iron, for all work, three months ahead, and have you the work under way for the season just ahead of you? Do you know how many collars, hames, trace-chains and back-bands you have, and are all in their place, ready for use when called for? Have you made out a list of all the farm implements and tools you have during the last three months, and you know the tools, such as axes, wedges, hoes, &c., each negro has, and how many lost or disposed of the last ones he had? Are the boxes in any of your wagons or carts loose? Are the tires loose on any of them? Do the hind wheels follow in the track of the front wheels? The old adage, "a stitch in time," fully applies to the care of all farm implements and the economy of their use.

Farm Work.—Have you examined all your ditches since the last rain, to see if they are opened all the way to the outlets? If there is any trash or drift in them there is obstruction at some point, else they would keep themselves clean. Do you go out immediately after the last rain, to see if all your ditches were flowing, and did you notice any basins of water, from which a water furrow could lead off the water to a ditch? There is no use attempting to make a crop land partially covered with water for days. Vegetation cannot go on and no prosperous growth can take place until the dry spell in the summer comes, which is too late for maturity. Have you examined the machinery of your gin stands, and did you, at the close of last season, take out the brushes and hang them up where rats and mice could not reach, and so cover up the stand that it could not be filled with dust, and did you assure yourself, long before their being led into use, that all were in order? And, above all, were your baskets and sacks and all other work in readiness at the beginning of cotton-picking time?

CONTRACT WITH OVERSEER.—Whereas, the undersigned is about to enter into an arrangement with A—— B—— for the management of his plantation in —— county; it is expressly agreed and understood, that the undersigned is to use his best exertions and all his time and energy, not only in the making of the crop, but in the care and attention to the negroes, property and stock, in accordance with the instructions now given in the foregoing suggestions, or that he may be given from time to time, for and in consideration of the sum of —— dollars, for the period of time from the —— of —— to the —— or at the rate of —— dollars per month, if this agreement be dissolved sooner than the time specified, of which a notice of —— days must be given by each party. In witness whereof, I herunto subscribe my name.

2.—SOUTHERN TOBACCO CONVENTION.

A committee of the Kentucky State Agricultural Society recommends a convention of the producers and buyers of tobacco, to be held in Louisville, Kentucky, on the 25th of May next, which is the day fixed for awarding premiums to the growers of the best tobacco, under the auspices of the State Agricultural Society. The design is to bring the producers and purchasers together, in order to an interchange of opinions. The agriculturists may learn what grades are best suited to the market, and will meet the most ready sale. The *Louisville Journal*, speaking of the great commercial importance of the staple, says that the value of raw tobacco, exported from the United States to Great Britain, was over \$3,500,000, in 1855, and during the first half of the present century, that country collected import duties on it to the enormous aggregate of over \$570,000,000. The total value of our exports of tobacco in 1857 was \$20,662,772, and in 1858 amounted to \$19,409,882. During the first nine months of 1857, the import revenue, derived by France from it, was over \$25,000,000; four fifths of which were exported from the United States. The *Cyclopedia of Commerce* says, that tobacco, next to salt, is probably the article most consumed by men. In one form or another, but most generally in the form of fume or smoke, there is no climate in which it is not consumed, and no nationality that has not adopted it. To put down its use has equally baffled legislators and moralists, and, in the words of Pope, on a higher subject, it may be said to be partaken of "by saint, by savage, and by sage." The average consumption, per head, of male population, over eighteen years of age, in some countries, seems almost fabulous. In the German States, included in the operations of the Zollverein and the Steuerverein, it reaches from nine and three fourths to twelve and a half pounds; in Holland, and Belgium, and Denmark, to eight or nine pounds. The advance cost of tobacco is shown from the fact, that in 1842 we exported 150,710 hhds., at an average cost of \$60 11, and in 1857 only 156,848, at the average value per hhd. of \$132 40.

3.—THE LARGE COTTON PLANTERS

Not long since, a paragraph was published, giving some account of the cotton crop of Col. Bond, of Georgia, which amounted last year to 2,100 bales, and was the largest sent to market by any planter of that State. A *Vidalia* correspondent of the *Free Trader* (Natchez), contrasts the planters of Mississippi and Louisiana with the Georgia celebrity as follows:

There are half a dozen planters in Concordia parish and Louisiana, as also many more in Mississippi, that make a higher mark than this. Not to make a thing invidious, the name of A. V. Davis, Esq., of Concordia parish, who makes all his cotton there, chalks up several hundred bales above the Georgia planter, so does L. R. Marshall, Esq., in the State of Louisiana, raising in that State alone, more than three thousand five hundred bales; so is John Routh, Esq., of Hard Times, full as much if not more; so did Frederick Stanton, Esq., but a few weeks deceased, raise twenty-eight hundred bales the present year—all in Concordia parish—and even more than this figure in 1855—all in Louisiana; and there are numerous others that come up, or nearly so, to the Georgia highest knot. For instance, L. R. Marshall, residence at Natchez, a planter in three States, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Arkansas, is more than a four-thousand-bale producer; so is Dr. Stephen Duncan more than a three-thousand-bale grower in the State of Mississippi, besides being an opulent planter of Louisiana—more than four thousand bales in all.

The great estates of the two princely planters of this region, the late Samuel Davis and Francis Surget, Esq., always produced from three to five thousand bales each, until their deaths divided the estates between the heirs.

4.—PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON.

REAT AND INCREASING PROSPERITY OF THE SOUTH AND THE BRILLIANT FUTURE
WHICH IS OPENING UPON HER.

The following is from the *United States Economist*, and will be read with interest by our planters:

The increase of the use of cotton for human clothing, is observable in the following table of the average quantity taken by each country of Europe per week, for several years:

AVERAGE WEEKLY CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN EUROPE.

Countries.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
France	7,077	7,173	10,575	9,018	8,500	9,211	10,115	8,596	
Belgium	1,134	1,115	1,634	1,538	1,346	1,211	1,538	1,096	
Holland	1,038	1,038	1,365	1,173	1,653	1,711	1,903	1,883	
Germany	1,653	2,115	2,442	2,769	3,981	4,057	4,750	4,142	
Austria	2,288	2,211	2,596	1,981	1,788	1,653	1,865	1,442	
Genoa, Naples, &c.	558	596	942	980	807	1,096	2,115	1,730	
Spain	1,481	1,768	1,826	1,634	1,788	2,192	2,346	1,730	
Russia, Norway, &c.	2,923	2,923	4,057	4,000	2,577	2,404	4,423	3,846	
Italy on the Continent	18,152	18,939	25,437	23,093	22,440	23,535	29,055	24,465	
Old Great Britain	29,125	31,988	35,790	36,613	37,829	40,403	41,985	39,065	41,339
European consumption per week	47,277	50,927	61,227	59,706	60,269	63,938	71,042	63,530	

The rise was rapid on the Continent, as well as in England, in 1850, 1851, and 1852, under the stimulus of gold and fine crops. The rise was 30 per cent. in those years, nearly equal to 730,000 bales per annum. This figure underwent a slight reaction on the Continent, under the rise in food in the following year, and in France during the Russian war, accompanied as it was, by war food, but the quantity taken again increased, and reached a high figure in 1856, when the aggregate quantity taken was 71,042 bales per week, or, in round numbers, 3,700,000 bales per annum, being 10,000 bales, or 17 per cent. per week, more than the maximum of 1852. At that rate the demand for cotton doubles every six years, but that was an exceptional year. The panic of 1857 carried the figures back to those of 1855. From 1852 to 1857 the circumstances of war food and war expenditure seemed to interfere with the use of cotton. Those circumstances are now removed, and the quantity of cotton taken by England in 1858 was nearly as large as that taken by her in 1856. Should peace be preserved on the Continent, the use of cotton will be carried more rapidly to high figures than ever before, particularly in Germany and Holland. Of the quantity taken by Great Britain, a large portion returns to the countries whence it came. India in her best days never sells so much cotton as she buys, and will never be able to make her production of the raw material to keep pace with the demand for goods, and the same fact is true of all producing countries except the United States, whence alone the countries of Europe can draw a supply to meet their growing wants. The United States produce a large surplus of cotton, but they are the largest cotton consumers in the world, taking more weight of cotton annually per head than any other nation, and the same remark applies to all clothing material. The stock of cotton on hand, at the close of 1858, in England, was smaller than at the close of any year since 1840, being but 1,980 bales. The average for the last six years was 655,000 bales. The United States supply this year will be very large—a maximum crop. The average increase of the supply for a series of years is, however, far below the above rates of consumption. The average quantity taken in England and on the Continent, for three years, ending with 1852, was 53,000 bales per week, and the average for three years ending with 1857, was 66,000 bales per week, being an increase of 25 per cent. per annum, while the United States crop has increased in such proportion. On the Continent of Europe, the average for the three years

ending with 1852, was 22,000 bales per week, and for the three years ending with 1857, was 28,000 bales per week, an increase of 40 per cent., or 420,000 bales per annum, dependent entirely upon the United States for its future. These are results which point to a very extraordinary state of affairs in the Southern States. They are the only sources of supply for an article which has become indispensable to meet the demands for clothing, growing each more urgent in Europe in the double ratio of growing numbers, and increasing ability to buy clothing. This fact has for several years back manifested itself in a manner to send up the price of cotton and hands in a remarkable manner. The stock of cotton, which in England accumulated annually from 584,000 bales in 1840, to 1,260,000 bales in 1845, has since, under increasing supplies, dwindled to 461,980 bales, and the average price of cotton that, with a crop in 1845, of 2,400,000 bales was 6c., rose to 12½c. on a crop of 3,527,000 bales in 1856. The prosperity of the South has already attracted the attention of the Northern dealers and manufacturers, who have overrun that section of the country with drummers and agents, soliciting business on such terms as are likely to be productive of an immense debt. This Southern prosperity has also had a great political influence. Already the tone of the "plunder party press" is quite subdued—the free-soil North-west being bankrupt, pecuniary interests are attracted to the section that pays best, and the scheming of political adventurers suffers modification to suit the times. The advancing price of cotton and hands may tend to some new mode of production. If field hands can raise cotton in certain sections to yield a profit at 6c., other labor may seek the profit when the price is 12½c. If the cultivation of cotton, through the large demand for it, should hold out such large profits as a proximate price of 20c. would indicate, it will attract to it great numbers of cultivators who may not be able to command hands. In any event it would seem to be impossible to limit the supply to the rule which now governs it, viz., the natural increase of hands. Either the latter must be multiplied by other means, or their operation supplanted by other industrials.

5.—THE GUANO TRADE OF PERU.

The government of Peru sold from the Chincha Islands, during the year 1858, guano to the amount of 266,709 tons. This sold at the ports of Europe and America, where it was delivered, for about *fifteen million dollars*; and deducting \$3,000,000 for the freight, this leaves \$12,000,000 received by the Peruvian government and their agents from the sales. The freight of the last year has averaged about \$11 a ton. It is now \$10, or less. At one time the freight was as high as \$30 a ton.

The annexed statement from the *Lima Comercia*, gives the amount of guano shipped during the year 1858 :

	No. of Ships.	Tons of Guano.
England and the Continent	190.....	151,333
Spain	37.....	27,160
France	45.....	25,545
Australia	3.....	1,523
Barbadoes	6.....	2,667
United States	52.....	51,253
Mauritius.....	13.....	7,228
Total.....	346.....	266,709

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—SOUTHERN DIRECT TRADE.

The Paris (France) "Patrie" rejoices over the idea of a proposed Commercial connection between the Southern States and the French Empire; regarding these States to be, by their traditions, etc., the French part of the Union, as the Northern States constitute the English. This is the idea of the "Patrie." Its language is as follows:

"As is well known, the Central and Southern States are the productive States of the Union. They possess the raw materials. They yield the rich staples of cotton, tobacco and grain; ores, principally copper, are plentiful, and from their magnificent forests is taken the finest timber for ship-building. How is it, then, that with natural riches so numerous, they have been to the present day superseded by the Northern States, which have, so to speak, monopolized all the trade of the Union? There are two causes; the less enterprising and active character of the inhabitants of the Centre and South, and the want of easy and connecting roads to allow them to export their products in a direct manner. They have only one important *debouché* on the Gulf of Mexico, through New Orleans, which the Mississippi river and its many tributaries connect with the interior.

"In the North, on the contrary, we see the industrious spirit of the Anglo-Saxon race bring forth wonders of activity. There were dug the first canals and built the first railroads. Mills, forges, and manufactures are multiplying. All the industrial and commercial forces seem to concentrate in those States which forward to New-York the greater part of the products of the Union. Thanks to those resources, the prosperity of that city is increasing with an incredible rapidity. New-York becomes the centre of all enterprises; she attracts all the funds and stocks; she is the general *entrepôt* and the great distributor of the merchandizes of the United States. There is their real *maison-de-commerce*, and there flock from all points of the globe steamers and sailing-ships. New-York can now vie with the wealthiest towns of the world, and her population has reached the figure of 800,000.

"But already, during the last few years, this relation of the Central and Southern States has been modified; the spirit of enterprise has been awakened there. They have understood that they would be dependent on the North, not only commercially, but even politically, as long as they could not rely upon themselves, and they are now putting their shoulders to the work. With their own resources, they have created immense ways of communication. Canals have been dug, soon to unite Chesapeake Bay to the largest rivers of the interior; numerous roads have been cut, railways are spreading in all directions, and reaching to all the harbors of the bay. The greatest railroad in the world, starting from Norfolk and Richmond, after crossing the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, drives, in a straight line, through Memphis, Cincinnati, and St. Louis, Missouri, up to the base of the Rocky Mountains. Ere long it will stretch out to San Francisco, receive and carry all the products of America to both ends of the vast continent—that is, to Norfolk and San Francisco—thus connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific.

"Witnessing the results so far obtained, and promising the brightest future, they were led to the following natural reasoning: Why should they remain tributaries to New-York for the export of their own products, whilst they possess, on the Chesapeake Bay, the magnificent port of Norfolk, opposite Portsmouth, the military harbor and the most extensive dock-yard of the United States? Between New-York and New-Orleans, for more than 2500 miles, Norfolk is the only accessible port for ships of great tonnage. Canals and railroads connect her to the Central and Southern States, of which she is the natural mart by her geographical position, just as New-York is for the Northern States and New-Orleans for some States of the South. Why, then, continue to submit to the exigencies of New-York? Why direct products to that port, with considerable expenses for transit, landing, storage, and transporting from one ship to another? The distance from the growing districts to New-York is not less than 50 miles. To the expenses of the transit must be added the fees for brokerage, commission, etc. What is the good of a costly and distant medium, which can

be actually spared! Would it not be more commodious and advantageous to bring all the merchandise to Norfolk, and establish direct communications by sea with Europe, and especially with France!

"These ideas, propounded by a few practical men, have gained ground very rapidly. Numerous pamphlets have been published, meetings held in many important towns, and those manifestations, in spite of the efforts of New-York to repress them, have met with general response. A few months ago, the principal manufacturers and the Presidents of the railroads of the Central and Southern States convened at Bristol, Va., on the boundaries of Tennessee and Kentucky, in order to send to Europe a delegate with the special charge of making some agreement with the ship builders and the chambres de commerce. Mr. Ballard Preston, former Secretary of the Navy under President Taylor, was entrusted with that mission. After visiting England, Mr. Ballard Preston examined the harbors of the French coast. He was struck with the position of St. Nazaire, situated at the mouth of the Loire, sheltered from all danger, and connected with all the railroads of Europe by means of the Orleans railway, which surrounds her docks with a belt of rails, and puts her in direct communication with all the central places of consumption and production. He thought St. Nazaire fulfilled all the desiderata for a connecting point to a trans-Atlantic line between the centre of France and the centre of the United States; such a line, merely for trade, would be of great service to both countries, by feeding their manufactories with exchanged goods, whilst it would do no harm to the postal lines already established, since the latter are mostly intended for mails and passengers.

"Proposals made for that purpose to the Orleans Company have been accepted, and followed by a proposed contract for the formation of a company whose object would be the establishment of a line of steamers between Norfolk and St. Nazaire. The project was ratified by the Virginia Legislature; the question is, then, pretty well advanced. But it is requisite to obtain a subsidy from the Federal Government, and such is the aim of the proposition which is shortly to be laid before Congress."

2.—OUR CITY BANKS.

COMPARATIVE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE FOLLOWING CITIES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, JANUARY 1856, 1857, 1858, and 1859.

1856.	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
New-York,.....	\$95,114,060..	\$10,788,099..	\$7,941,946..	\$80,438,627
Philadelphia,.....	24,966,686..	4,101,478..	5,063,585..	14,638,855
Boston,.....	51,234,102..	3,519,123..	7,670,446..	14,167,256
Baltimore,.....	16,500,827..	2,825,742..	3,391,431..	6,736,396
New-Orleans,.....	16,289,239..	8,583,008..	6,518,282..	14,438,614
Total,.....	\$204,104,994	\$29,827,450	\$30,482,698	\$139,418,748
1857.				
New-York,.....	\$108,527,429..	\$10,392,428..	\$8,387,167..	\$87,396,664
Philadelphia,.....	26,000,479..	3,473,248..	5,422,161..	17,723,323
Boston,.....	53,744,058..	3,881,492..	7,252,217..	15,910,287
Baltimore,.....	18,704,952..	2,998,876..	3,395,643..	7,765,967
New-Orleans,.....	20,618,363..	6,625,108..	8,987,676..	14,569,480
Total,.....	\$227,596,280	\$27,371,151	\$33,444,868	\$143,365,541
1858.				
New-York.....	\$110,688,354..	\$31,530,000..	\$7,332,332..	\$93,589,149
Philadelphia.....	21,657,152..	5,987,597..	2,647,399..	13,423,318
Boston.....	51,918,900..	8,259,500..	5,477,500..	20,136,400
Baltimore.....	17,802,695..	2,169,517..	3,058,643..	6,082,007
New-Orleans.....	16,157,998..	10,070,576..	7,068,449..	16,974,043
Total.....	\$218,125,008	\$67,973,190	\$25,484,323	\$150,203,918

1859.				
New-York	\$148,538,000..	\$28,400,000..	\$7,930,000..	\$2,826,000
Philadelphia.....	26,451,000..	6,063,000..	2,741,000..	17,049,000
Boston.....	60,069,000..	8,584,000..	6,543,000..	22,357,000
Baltimore.....	17,960,000..	2,717,000..	2,972,000..	7,520,000
New-Orleans	28,860,000..	16,258,000..	9,094,000..	21,832,000

Total\$261,878,000 \$61,986,000 \$29,280,000 \$161,584,000

We see from these statements that the increase or decrease of specie in the several cities has been as follows :

	1857 to 1858		1858 to 1859	
	Increase, per cent.	Decrease, per cent.	Increase, per cent.	Decrease, per cent.
New-York	203		..	10
Philadelphia.....	54		..	..
Boston	113		2	..
Baltimore.....	..	30	23	..
New-Orleans, ...	11		51	..

Taking the aggregate of the two years, however, would show the greatest of specie in New-York city.

3.—COMPARATIVE TARIFF REVENUES.

NATIONAL REVENUE DERIVED FROM TEN LEADING ARTICLES IN EACH COUNTRY.

	France.	Great Britain	Netherlands	Spain.	United States
Sugar.....	60,559,929	120,663,027	17,583,232	6,107,797	47,858,462
Coffee.....	23,180,146	14,669,176	21,543,516	..	..
Cotton.....	19,870,594	..	..	3,549,243	..
Iron.....	9,896,700	..	8,098,957	1,454,775	23,941,653
Coal.....	9,171,789	..	..	1,967,108	..
Wool.....	8,501,661	..	..	..	..
Linen.....	..	..	..	1,243,237	..
Oil.....	5,674,444	..	..	..	..
Hides and Leather.....	..	..	..	..	9,967,285
Cocoa.....	2,702,606	..	..	3,065,836	..
Cheese.....	..	..	..	..	..
Spirits.....	2,500,173	..	..	..	21,841,732
Stockfish.....	..	..	..	5,974,026	..
Boats.....	200,817	..	..	..	..
Apparel.....	..	..	..	..	..
Tea.....	..	138,450,060	..	..	..
Rice.....	..	..	3,348,156	..	..
Tobacco.....	..	130,240,650	8,745,491	..	9,705,094
Animals.....	..	..	..	..	..
Wine.....	..	51,843,375	6,104,025	..	6,750,843
Machinery.....	..	..	..	..	..
Lumber.....	..	14,469,175	..	..	..
Hardware.....	..	..	1,600,706	..	11,843,912
Grain.....	..	12,210,075	..	..	..
Balsins.....	..	7,814,460	..	..	..
Macaroni.....	..	..	..	..	..
Earthenware.....	..	..	..	..	..
Salt.....	..	..	..	..	..
Cotton yarn.....	..	..	5,968,762	..	..
Cottons.....	..	..	..	3,134,200	39,558,902
Silks.....	..	7,740,600	3,038,741	1,976,834	43,297,284
Woolens.....	..	..	3,074,410	4,612,910	47,485,073
Total in France.....	148,491,287	777,930,950	75,463,199	33,281,652	251,780,472
Total customs.....	178,736,311	605,171,100	98,086,657	50,731,541	333,916,315
Per cent. 10 articles.....	80.3	97.9	77.	65.8	78.2

In Russia the ten articles which give seventy-two out of one hundred and four millions revenue are sugar, coffee, cotton, tea, tobacco, wine, salt, cottons, silks, and woollens.

In Holland 3,767,000 out of 5,960,000 francs are given by iron, tea, tobacco, machinery, hardware, earthenware, cotton yarns, cottons, silks, woollens, &c.

4.—IMPORT, STOCK AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN EUROPE.

	1857.					1858.				
	U. States.	Brazil.	W. I.	E. I.	Total.	U. States.	Brazil.	W. I.	E. I.	Total.
Stock 1st January..... bales.	260,000	35,000	2,000	109,000	406,000	311,000	39,000	11,000	239,000	590,000
Import to 31st December										
Great Britain.....	1,482,000	168,000	11,000	680,000	2,341,000	1,883,000	116,000	7,000	861,000	2,867,000
France.....	384,000	8,000	17,000	89,000	498,000	491,000	7,000	14,000	98,000	610,000
Belgium.....	32,000			30,000	62,000	31,000		1,000	18,000	50,000
Holland.....	57,000			49,000	106,000	56,000		4,000	38,000	98,000
Germany.....	112,000	2,000	7,000	70,000	191,000	111,000	2,000	8,000	132,000	253,000
Trieste.....	30,000	2,000		28,000	60,000	36,000	1,000		21,000	57,000
Genoa.....	39,000		1,000	24,000	64,000	39,000	1,000		6,000	46,000
Spain.....	72,000	10,000			82,000	95,000	11,000		2,000	108,000
Bales.....	2,208,000	190,000	38,000	920,000	3,456,000	2,715,000	128,000	34,000	608,000	3,545,000
• Deduct intermediate shipments.....	38,000			182,000	220,000	45,000	2,000		146,000	193,000
Add stock from above.....	2,170,000	190,000	38,000	738,000	3,206,000	2,670,000	126,000	34,000	462,000	3,447,000
Total supply.....	2,430,000	228,000	40,000	817,000	3,705,000	2,981,000	165,000	45,000	609,000	4,073,000
Deduct stock 31st December.....	311,000	39,000	11,000	239,000	600,000	412,000	27,000	6,000	72,000	517,000
Total deliveries.....	2,119,000	189,000	29,000	608,000	3,075,000	2,569,000	138,000	39,000	537,000	3,556,000
DELIVERIES.										
In Great Britain.....	1,353,000	155,000	7,000	392,000	1,907,000	1,638,000	115,000	11,000	322,000	2,175,000
France.....	377,000	7,000	14,000	21,000	419,000	444,000	5,000	16,000	33,000	517,000
Belgium.....	29,000			28,000	57,000	31,000			21,000	52,000
Holland.....	53,000		2,000	43,000	98,000	58,000		3,000	40,000	101,000
Germany.....	108,000	1,000	5,000	63,000	177,000	112,000	3,000	9,000	141,000	265,000
Trieste.....	21,000	2,000		23,000	46,000	28,000	1,000		28,000	57,000
Genoa.....	37,000		1,000	17,000	55,000	41,000	1,000		14,000	57,000
Spain.....	74,000	16,000		45,000	135,000	104,000	7,000		1,000	112,000
Stock of Exp. Great Britain.....	67,000	5,000			72,000	112,000	8,000		28,000	148,000
Total deliveries.....	2,119,000	186,000	29,000	608,000	3,075,000	2,569,000	138,000	39,000	537,000	3,556,000
of Minding Orleans, Jan. 1.....	7%	Dec.	31.	6% d	7%	Jan. 1.	6%	Dec.	31.	7%

5.—CUBA AND OUR RELATIONS WITH HER.*

The increase in the exports of sugar from the Island of Cuba is thus shown:—

1849.....	230,000 tons.
1852.....	310,000 "
1854.....	349,503 "
1855.....	375,475 "
1857.....	389,611 "

Of the total revenues of the Island, which amount to \$21,321,665, but \$1,404,056 were remitted to Spain.

The aggregate population in 1857 was—

Whites.....	549,674
Free Colored.....	174,810
Slaves.....	374,549
Total.....	1,107,491

The population of the Island in 1775 was 169,370; and in 1827, 704,487. Since 1841 the increase has been small.

The following tables, taken from Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, will show the articles which we send to Cuba, or receive in return from her.

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO CUBA.

	1838.		1857.		1858.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Candles.....	1,184,283	\$198,632	340,287	\$64,829	273,000	\$50,545
Apples.....	3,612	7,738	1,232	3,762	1,042	2,537
Beef.....	7,318	77,968	2,538	24,415	5,200	76,009
Beards, &c.....	M. feet	521,885	68,403	876,143	64,764	574,734
Butter.....	56,007	11,542	471,973	87,551	690,731	117,117
Cheese.....	107,708	12,422	131,227	14,417	245,134	25,246
Cotton.....	1,787,870	193,933			1,871	206
Fish, dried.....	cwt.	89,395	264,483	44,796	132,556	41,772
Fish, pickled.....	pkgs.	6,399	24,075	423	2,687	4,338
Gold and silver coin.....		1,188			363,444	1,182,778
Gold and silver bullion.....				45,090		85,000
Gunpowder.....	lbs.	461,340	41,572	121,050	28,610	40,506
Hams and bacon.....		5,118,315	61,211	1,789,603	188,290	2,726,498
Ice.....	tons.		8,846	25,819	9,509	29,111
Indian corn.....	bush.	29,250	24,816	213,338	136,308	288,784
Indian meal.....	bbbls.	1,330	4,549	8,504	13,819	1,768
Iron, castings.....	cwt.		7,495	12,268	933,439	42,982
Iron, nails.....	lbs.	1,040,308	61,174	1,876,870	83,039	620,517
Iron, manufactures.....			118,278			28,118
Lard.....	lbs.	6,484,028	223,745	9,956,547	1,267,932	14,425,478
Leather.....	lbs.			116,141	22,925	191,941
Boots and shoes.....	pairs			8,180	10,775	23,933
Manufac. tobacco.....	lbs.	147,424	19,172			463,543
Manufactures of cotton.....			157,621			68,099
Manufactures of wood.....			263,807		49,632	1,062,040
Oil, sperm.....	gals.	81,899	7,8618	1,961	1,675,243	3,083
Oil, whale, &c.....		92,409	34,627	107,388	89,409	117,117
Paper and stationery.....			33,969			58,929
Pork.....	treas.					252
Pork.....	bbbls.	3,000	231,000	3,214	63,730	5,354
Potatoes.....	bush.	7,691	28,682	47,632	113,540	187,709
Rice.....	treas.	21,372	651,095		641,256	20,738
Rice.....	bbbls.					746
Rye, oats, &c.....		16,334	2,718			26,844
Shingles.....	M.					1,563
Soap.....	353,532	113,664				364,134
Sperm candles.....		280,585	79,313	15,783	8,756	7,863
Shoes and heading.....	M.			7,835	561,674	24,969
Tallow.....	lbs.			885,318	105,360	1,762,837
Tobacco leaf.....	bbbls.	581	52,800			108
Wheat flour.....	bbbls.	79,681	598,093	45,145	324,410	17,965
Total domestic produce.....						\$11,873,182
Add foreign produce.....						2,760,584
Total exports to Cuba.....		\$4,721,433		\$9,379,582		\$14,432,367

RAILROAD SYSTEM OF THE SOUTH.

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CUBA.

	1838.		1857.		1858.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
old bullion	..	\$4,170	..	\$48,155	..	\$1,815
offee	lbs. 33,051,651	2,929,300	..	6,897	232,124	30,873
old coin	..	166,406	..	213,130	..	2,078,101
ilver coin	..	240,218	..	341,854	..	2,374,779
ocoa	lbs. ..	..	530,132	63,813	18,161	2,053
oked fish	cwt. ..	..	..	..	160	968
ther fish	bbles ..	..	..	..	22	147
oney	galls. ..	..	381,991	191,318	868,304	138,328
olasses	15,879,638	2,859,571	27,302,383	6,879,175	19,787,383	3,061,146
igar	lbs. 55,024,855	2,698,663	599,518,865	33,188,938	339,523,633	15,545,409
rup	..	..	87,244	1,359	1,699	61
igar, white, &c.	14,662,273	1,118,754	708,704	45,355	104,419	17,457
gars	M. 73,063	797,787	138,307	2,506,748	123,832	2,417,007
obacco	lbs. ..	..	5,536,630	972,567	4,317,928	744,329
ll other imports	..	879,873	..	533,704	..	808,364
Total		\$11,694,812		\$45,243,101		\$33,214,846

6.—WHALING INTERESTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Estimated value of the 661 whale vessels sailing from the United States, including their outfits, provisions, and the advances made to seamen on the day of sailing, at the rate of \$25,000 each	\$10,525,000
Six per cent. per annum, interest on the same	991,500
Ten per cent. per annum, allowed for wear and tear	1,600,000
Two and a half per cent. insurance	413,125
Fresh supplies purchased by the masters, equal to about \$1,200 per annum each	793,000
Amount of money paid to masters, officers, and crew, being their shares of the oil taken, equal to one third of the gross value of the products	4,013,601
Total amount of money invested, including interest, &c.	24,336,226
Value of the annual amount of oil taken, showing a clear yearly profit of 46 per cent.	12,040,805
Difference between the whole capital invested and the yearly profit	12,295,421

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—RAILROAD SYSTEM OF THE SOUTH.

THE usually very accurate Railroad Journal, published in New-York, is authority for the annexed statistics, which our readers will find interesting and valuable.

The total miles of railroad in the United States is 27,857, and the cost of construction \$961,047,000. The Journal follows a classification of the States, which we proposed in the Compendium of the Census, but departs from it somewhat.

There are about 6000 miles of railroad in process of construction in the Union. In the last 11 years, 22,592 miles have been constructed.

MARYLAND.	MILES.	COST.	MARYLAND.	MILES.	COST.
Annapolis and Elkridge...	20½	\$420,000	Phil., Wilmington & Balt.	102	\$3,588,379
Baltimore and Ohio	379½	24,802,645	Various Coal Railroads...	100	3,000,000
Branches	7½		Total	791½	\$41,850,363
Western Central	138	7,238,341	NEW-YORK.		
Western Maryland	14	250,000	Brockton	84	\$512,000
Washington Branch	30	1,650,000			

RAILROAD SYSTEM OF THE SOUTH.

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SOUTH—continued.			GEORGIA—continued.		
NAME	MILES.	COST.	NAME	MILES.	COST.
ton and Lexington.	89	\$4,133,971	Macon and Western.	101	\$1,569,000
ton & Big Sandy.	17	694,624	Main Trunk.	34	81,500
and Danville.	13	834,433	Milledgeville and Gordon.	17	300,000
and Frankfort.	29	658,256	" and Eatonton.	23	300,000
ile and Frankfort.	48	1,689,566	Muscogee.	50	1,238,518
and Nashville.	90+	3,834,980	Rome.	30	300,000
Lebanon Branch.	37+		Savannah, Albany & Gulf.	68	1,161,731
ile and Lexington.	19		Southwestern.	106	
and Mobile.	20+	1,060,000	Butler Branch.	23	2,300,000
and Louisville.	5	100,000	Cuthbert Branch.	2	
			Western and Atlantic.	128	5,961,687
Total.	400	\$13,149,280	Total.	1,174	\$24,268,163
VIRGINIA.			ALABAMA.		
dria, Loudoun and	41	\$290,020	Alabama and Florida.	48	\$1,000,000
shire.	15	300,000	" " Mississippi.	30	600,000
Hill.	76	2,843,463	" " Tennessee.	90	2,000,000
as Gap.	80	1,453,723	Marian.	14	210,000
and Petersburg.	104	5,628,764	Mobile and Girard.	87+	1,300,000
Western.	80		" and Ohio.	267	10,761,428
and Alexandria.	0	3,010,097	Montgomery and W. Point.	57+	
Warrenton Branch.	25		" Opelike Branch.	28	2,335,335
Extension.	64		Total.	671	\$19,948,761
urg.	19	1,204,115	TENNESSEE.		
Easton Branch.	140+	8,486,684	Cleveland & Chattanooga.	30	\$297,216
and Danville.	76	1,817,179	Edgeland and Kentucky.	30	600,000
and, Frederick and	23	1,235,411	East Tennessee & Georgia.	170	2,702,428
mac.	3	1,402,987	" and Virginia.	150	3,308,138
and Petersburg.	80		Louisville and Nashville.	204	680,000
rt Walthall Branch.	123	3,766,387	McMinnville and Man-	24	565,459
rd and Roanoke.	10	7,515,768	chester.	27	
Side.	206	6,582,870	Memphis and Charleston.	124	6,084,648
ity Point Branch.	94	575,483	Sumerville Branch.	24	
a Central.	32	200,000	Tusculum Branch.	57	2,200,000
a and Tennessee.	40	400,000	Memphis and Ohio.	55	1,304,576
alt Works Branch.	1474	\$47,402,381	Mississippi Central and	151	4,468,907
ster and Potomac.	96	\$1,922,703	Tennessee.	3	718,258
gton & Alexandria.	233	4,235,000	Nashville & Chattanooga.	28+	300,000
a Coal Road.	97	1,260,241	Shelby Branch.	15	300,000
Total.	22	450,070	Tennessee and Alabama.		
NORTH CAROLINA.			Total.	962	\$23,800,688
a and S. Carolina.	171	2,379,168	TEXAS.		
Carolina Central.	182	2,854,610	Buffalo, Bayou, Brazos.	32	Estimated at \$21,000 per mile.
and Gaston.	770	\$13,161,792	and Colorado.	38	
te Valley.	73	\$1,720,623	Galveston, Houston and	7	
gton and Man-	29	1,787,674	Henderson.	78	
gton and Weldon.	110	1,719,045	Houston Tap.	5	
	40	600,000	Houston & Texas Central.	27+	
ile and Columbia.	143		San Antonio and Mexican		
Abbeville Branch.	12	2,487,461	Gulf.		
Anderson Branch.	9		Southern Pacific.		
Mountain.	23	196,232	Total.	187+	\$4,678,300
Western.	82	218,476	FLORIDA.		
Carolina.	102	1,907,278	Florida, Atlantic and Gulf	100	Estimated at \$20,000 per mile.
Camden Branch.	136		Central.	10	
Columbia Branch.	87	7,588,037	Pensacola and Georgia.	26	
Shaw and Union.	28	802,508	Tallahassee.	21	
Total.	761	\$18,021,841	Total.	157	\$3,140,000
GEORGIA.			MISSOURI.		
a and La Grange.	80+	1,171,716	Cairo and Fulton.	11	\$400,000
a and Savannah.	83	1,030,100	Hannibal and St. Joseph.	102	8,523,329
ville & Thomas-ton.	16	320,000	North Missouri.	107	5,473,910
rick and Florida.	31	800,000	Pacific.	163	10,486,364
l.	103	3,750,000	South-West Branch.	19	907,564
h.	8	120,000	St. Louis & Iron Mountain.	86	5,042,682
s.	171		Total.	547	\$20,904,159
Warrenton Branch.	4	4,174,492	MISSISSIPPI.		
idams Branch.	39		Grand Gulf and Port Gib-	128	2,500,000
Washington Branch.	17		son.	128	2,500,000
			Mississippi Central.	128	1,348,302
			" and Tennessee.		

MISSISSIPPI—continued.			LOUISIANA—continued.		
	MILES.	COST.		MILES.	COST.
Lyndon.....	7	\$130,000	New-Orleans & Carrollton.....	10½	\$220,000
Uthman.....	81	3,450,000	New-Orleans, Jackson and		
East Feliciana.....	26	747,000	Great Northern.....	206	7,142,563
Total.....	306	\$8,321,980	New-Orleans, Opelousas &		
LOUISIANA.			Great Western.....	80	3,877,525
Baton Rouge, Grosse Tete			Vicksburg, Shreveport &		
and Opelousas.....	17	\$225,000	Texas.....	21	929,418
Inton and Port Hudson.....	22	750,000	Total.....	389½	\$13,804,508
East and Gulf.....	27	540,000	ARKANSAS.		
Monrovia and Lake Pont-			Memphis and Little Rock.....	38	\$1,000,000
chartrain.....	6	120,000			

2.—SABINE AND GALVESTON BAY RAILROAD COMPANY.

Colonel Gentry, a prominent citizen of Texas, and president of the above company, called on us recently (says the *New-Orleans Picayune*), and left with us an official report of the position of this enterprise, so important to the best interests of New-Orleans and Louisiana. This road is designed to run from the railroad centre of Texas, the flourishing city of Houston, east to Beaumont on the Sabine river, there to meet the prolongation of our Opelousas railroad from New-Iberia. The distance from Houston to the Sabine is 100 miles; from the Sabine to New-Iberia, 113 miles; from New-Orleans to the Sabine, 237 miles; or, from New-Orleans to Houston, by this route, 337 miles, part of which is already in operation by the Opelousas railroad.

The entire 100 miles of the route from Houston to the Sabine are under contract, including grading, bridging, culverts, drainage, cross-ties, track laying, ballasting road, &c. The contractors are men of means and experience, and the stock of the company is owned principally by parties who reside on the line of the road. Of these 100 miles, the grading is so far advanced that the track can be laid from Houston to the Trinity river—a distance of 40 miles—in three months after the iron is received at Houston. The cross-ties for this section are now nearly all ready.

The road has a most liberal charter, and is in the hands of good and prudent managers. It has no floating debt, and Colonel Gentry expresses his determination, while he is its executive officer, that it shall have none. He visits Baton Rouge to lay the enterprise before the Legislature, and to endeavor to induce that body to recognize the route from the Sabine to New-Iberia, as the connecting link between his road and that of the Opelousas company.

3.—CHARLESTON AND SAVANNAH RAILROAD.

We are indebted to the President, Thomas F. Drayton, Esq., for a copy of his able report.

The grading and trestle-work is finished to the end of the fortieth mile, and between that and the seventy-second mile much of the work is finished or greatly advanced. By the end of the current year the whole of the grading and trestle-work, it is thought, will be finished to Savannah. On the portion of the road now worked the results have been far more flattering than was expected. The President says:

But satisfactory as this statement of its affairs may appear, the ratio of increase is small in comparison to the income which will accrue, whenever the Charleston and Savannah Railroad has reached the terminus that will enable the two roads to adopt a through-ticket with the lines and cities north of Richmond, and thus divert once more toward the seaboard, a large portion of the travel which now takes the valley route through East Tennessee, and thence by one of the several roads to New-Orleans.

For the attainment of this desirable diversion of passenger traffic, companies in Georgia and Florida are making zealous efforts.

The Georgia Central Railroad and Banking Company is busily extending its southwestern arms to reach Mobile and New-Orleans, via Macon and Fort Mifflin; the Savannah and Gulf road is pushing on to the same points, having

twenty odd miles now finished, and the rest of the road located to Bainbridge on the Flint river. A branch road from Doctors' town on the Gulf road, toward St. Mary's and Fernandina, is surveyed and projected.

Florida is building from Fernandina to Tampa and Cedar Keys, from which last named harbors steamers will, in a few months, carry the passengers to New-Orleans and the ports on the Isthmus. Whether the passengers returning by way of Cedar Keys and Fernandina, will take the steamers directly to New-York, or turn into Charleston, to be forwarded north by the Northeastern Railroad, time must prove. But what course the traveller will take when the Charleston and Savannah Railroad and the branch road from Doctors' town to St. Mary's are finished, none can doubt.

4.—BATON ROUGE, GROSSE TETE AND OPELOUSAS RAILROAD

At the last annual report (says the *New-Orleans Picayune*) the completion of the road to the Bayou Grosse Tête was announced, together with the fact that daily trains had been running since 13th June, 1857, between the Bayou and the Mississippi.

Since, no further progress has been made in track-laying or grading. What roadway was made, however, has been strengthened, the grade elevated in low places, new cross-ties added, culverts repaired, bridges strengthened, turn-tables placed at each end of the road, brick made and lumber procured for the erection of workshops and sheds, &c.

Last September, an engineer corps was sent to survey the route from the Bayou Grosse Tête terminus of the road, to a point on the Atchafalaya river, in the direction of Alexandria, on Red River. The engineer was instructed to run an air-line as nearly as practicable in the direction mentioned. This survey was promptly accomplished. The engineer reports the length of the line surveyed to be twenty-six miles from the Bayou Grosse Tête terminus to the Atchafalaya, at a point between the mouths of Cowhead and Muscle Bayous, which, where they empty into the Atchafalaya, are but two hundred yards apart. The State road, now building from Morganza to Opelousas, strikes the Atchafalaya at the same point. But a slight change in the air-line survey would place the proposed extension to the Atchafalaya almost entirely on open ground.

The Atchafalaya terminus of the road is within fifteen miles of the thriving town of Opelousas. The intermediate country is populous and wealthy. The company expects to form a connection with the Louisiana Central Stem Railroad, which will give a road through to Red River.

The assets of the company amount to \$162,363 00; its liabilities to \$68,741 61. The receipts of the road, from December 1st, 1857, to the same date in 1858, were \$30,369 00, of which \$23,126 62 were for freights, \$5,792 38 for passengers, \$1,350 00 for mail service. The disbursements for the same time, including payment on locomotives, cars, salaries, &c., amounted to \$24,818 52.

The rolling stock of the company now in use is valued at \$29,100 00, and consists of two engines, one passenger car, one baggage car, one box car, eight platform cars, two hand and two freight cars, tools and machinery equipments and rails on hand.

It is believed the road can be built to the Atchafalaya for \$8,042 00 per mile. What road is built and in use, is in first-rate condition; and the company ask the planters to join with the residents of Opelousas and Alexandria in aiding the making of the unbuilt portion of this important domestic enterprise.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—NORTH CAROLINA MINERALS.

A FRIEND sends us the letters of Charles Wilkes, upon the mineral wealth of Chatham county, N. C., and of Wm. Gemmell, of Scotland, in regard to the same

atter. We postpone publication of these letters to another occasion, but give the marks of our correspondent upon them.

Among the many ideas which may suggest themselves on a reading of the above letters of Captain Wilkes, U. S. N., and Mr. Gemmel, two, it seems to us, are worthy of special notice.

"*Cheap Coal and Iron*" are the foundations of all true commercial greatness. Witness what has been effected in Great Britain; made, of a small island, one of the great powers of the earth, if not the greatest, at the present time. Without these, where would have been her factories and steamers, her mechanical skill! and, especially, where would have been the great cotton market for the Southern States!

Too much importance cannot be given to agricultural pursuits; but these, however honorable, seldom or never lead to advances in the arts and sciences. The latter are evoked by the pursuits of the mechanic and artisan—by the greater degrees of perception engendered by their callings, and by the greater facilities which exist among a mechanical population for an interchange of ideas.

The highest state of civilization is that which combines these two, "Agricultural and Mechanical Arts," without giving undue preponderance to either; the flowers of the one being elevated by coming into contact with those of the other.

If this be true, as the experience of all time proves it, what a future may be opened to for North Carolina and the South! There, the raw materials, the cheapest and best coal and iron in the world, exist in a healthy country, with a fine climate. What else is wanting, but well directed energy? and where the inducements held out are so great, who can doubt but that they will be taken advantage of!

The other idea suggested to our minds is the present deplorable condition of the shipping trade, and its possible gloomier future.

Till within a few years, this country boasted of the most flourishing commercial marine navy that ever existed, and enjoyed nearly a monopoly of the carrying trade of the world. What is now the case! This branch of trade languishes, and is, simply, unprofitable.

Is it that there is not so much to be freighted now as formerly? The idea is absurd. We are driven to another cause, and that is, the competition between British iron-screw steamships and our old-fashioned merchant ships.

It may be asked, Why do not we build the same description of vessels? The answer to this is, that hitherto we could not compete with the "cheap coal and iron" of Great Britain.

But now it is proved, not only by the reports of our government and State officers, but also by practical American and Scotch iron men, that we can produce as good, if not better iron, than the Scotch, and at a cheaper rate than they can, owing to the proximity of the coal and iron to each other, and to the Eastern seaboard. Now, if we take into consideration that Scotland produces iron at a cheaper rate than any other country in Europe, we have only ourselves to blame, with such superior advantages to the Scotch, we do not avail of them to build iron-screw steamships, and thus secure our portion of the carrying trade, and prevent Great Britain driving us from the sea!

We invite inquiry from our ironmasters and others, on this important subject, and shall be pleased to render any further information that may be required.

2.—NOTES ON SOUTHERN CITIES, ETC.

NEW-ORLEANS.

HISTORY.—The city of New-Orleans, sometimes called the "Crescent City," from its form, is situated on the left bank of the Mississippi River, one hundred and five miles above the junction of the latter with the Gulf of Mexico; lies on a alluvial plain, in its highest portions twenty-three feet above the level of the sea, and slopes gradually off toward Lake Pontchartrain, where the elevation is only a few feet, although fourteen or fifteen feet higher than the water in the

open sea. The town and its suburbs, under different appellations, extend about nine miles along the river side, with a breadth varying from five hundred yards to four thousand.

A few Frenchmen left Biloxi, in 1717, and erected cabins where the city now lies. In 1722, the plan of the town was made by Bienville, and, in 1729, a charter was granted by the King of France. The city continued under the sway of its founders until 1767. The number of its inhabitants, when ceded, was about three thousand, dispersed over a space fifteen hundred yards long and seven hundred yards broad.

The Spaniards, placing little reliance on the allegiance of the French Colonists, sent a strong garrison and added to the fortifications. Five forts were repaired or erected, and a ditch made on the land side. The sway of the Spaniards continued thirty-five years. *Sanguinary in the outset, it was mild in the main!* The population of the town and colony was trebled. The trade and intercourse with the Upper Country, which was opened shortly afterward, although viewed with jealousy by the authorities, gave an impetus to the colony, such as no despotism could entirely control.

On the 20th of December, 1803, the flag of the United States waved over the city, which then contained eight thousand white and two thousand colored persons, and some eight hundred or nine hundred houses.

The Treaty of Kyawick, in 1763, by which Louisiana and Canada were ceded, has been looked upon as sealing the annihilation of the French domination in the New World. The Treaties of St. Ildefonso and Paris, in 1803, by which Louisiana was transferred, were not a whit less ominous for Spain. Many months had not elapsed after the introduction of democracy in New-Orleans, before a society was organized and other steps were taken for the expulsion of the Spaniards from Mexico. The members of this society were highly gifted gentlemen, and would probably have done much for our Southern neighbors.

The cession of Louisiana was very reluctant on the part of Spain. If the ministers of Charles IV. had viewed with jealousy the settlements of the Americans on the Ohio, the approach of the latter to the Mexican frontier was almost insupportable. Thus a species of war in disguise sprung up between the two nations; Spanish gold found one or more traitors; the society for revolutionizing Mexico was broken up; and the disputes about the right of search with the embargo and non-intercourse laws, followed by the war with England, had thrown a damp on the ambition of the settlers, and partly dispersed the crowds for whom New-Orleans was about to serve as "*un point d'appui.*"

The return of peace with Great Britain was the signal for renewing the revolutionary movements on Mexico; hosts of gallant men repaired to Texas, and a small corps embarked from the city under General Mina, whose success was signal, until treason among the *soi-disant* friends of the movement prolonged the Spanish rule for a few years.

Our neighbors in Mexico succeeded in expelling their European tyrants, but could not agree among themselves. They first encouraged the people of the United States to settle among them, and then made war against the new-comers. The cry for help reached New-Orleans, and succor was promptly given. The brave were no less ready, in 1835 and 1846, than they were in 1814 and 1815, and more bright pages in the history of our people will have to be written by future historians.

POPULATION OF NEW-ORLEANS.—Except New-York City, no town includes Americans from so many different States, while the number of blacks, with the French and Spanish Creoles, and the foreigners, is still greater. These representatives of many nations come to New-Orleans on account of its geographical and commercial relation to the West-Indies, South America, Mexico, the southern parts of North America, and the Great West and Northwest.

The Creole citizens are descendants of the French, Spanish and Germans, who originally founded and peopled this city, and constitute a large portion of the population.

Situated near the mouth of the Mississippi, with its immense confluents, the Ohio and the Missouri, almost the whole trade of these streams, and of their thousand tributaries, flows toward this point, as to a vast receiving and distributing reservoir.

Commerce of New-Orleans.—The exports of New-Orleans are those of no other American city, New-York not excepted. The Southern and Western States, sugar, cotton, wheat, are the articles chiefly shipped from this port.

1,889,707 bales of cotton were exported, and 1,678,410 imported from the interior, during the last commercial year, from September 1st, 1857, and ending August 31st, 1858.

The harbor is excellent and spacious. Ships and vessels from the flat-boat of the Mississippi to the magnificent frigate, or enliven the scene, as they move from point to point.

In 1773, there were twenty-five feet of water on the bar but twenty; and now there are but seventeen feet.

This city was also the capital of Louisiana until 1848, when the seat of government was removed to Baton Rouge.

It contains churches of various ages and styles; charitable institutions, theatres, banks, warehouses, hot branch mint, a large building, 382 feet long, 108 feet deep, also the University of Louisiana, and many excellent schools. The public-school system is carried to a high point of perfection.

The new Custom-House is laid out in the form of a T, having the following dimensions: Canal-street, 324 feet; New Levee, 296 feet; and Custom-House-street, 251 feet. The foundations and building were commenced on the 23d of October, 1848, and the edifice has steadily progressed, and will be completed in 1854, and its cost will not exceed \$3,500,000.

The Collector's room, in the centre of the building, is of pure white marble, 116 by 95 feet, surmounted by an entablature of rich Corinthian columns, fourteen in number, the whole surmounted by a spacious lantern, springing to the top of the building, and filling the room with a rich, beautiful light.

The construction is now conducted under the supervision of Beauregard, United States Engineer. This gentleman is all the rapidity that is consistent with the necessity of procuring immense quantities of material required from distant parts of the country for the appropriation for the current year.

About \$2,500,000 have been spent up to January 1st, 1854. The official feet of apartments have been thrown open to the public, and the business of that service is now transacted within the new building, the old ones now being far superior to any heretofore enjoyed.

The height of this edifice is 85 feet, and at the centre is 130 feet.

The population of New-Orleans is now about 160,000.

The increase of trade in New-Orleans, in every direction, holds out fair promise that she will soon rank as the great commercial city in the New or Old World.

CHARLESTON, S. C.

The population of Charleston has been estimated at 35,000, of whom more than one third are negroes. Her annual exports are worth thirty millions of dollars, embracing cotton, rice, lumber, and other produce; her imports are about two millions of dollars, embracing steamship lines, embracing some large and fine vessels, with New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. She exports the bulk of those very superior cottons, the great deal of this cotton, which brings a high price, comes to Charleston from Florida. The exports of cotton are steadily increasing. She is also connected, by steamship, with Florida, and by steamship, with Havana; also, by rail

points of the United States. There is a medical college well organized with able professors, which is well patronized. In addition to many private schools, there is a system of common schools, well arranged, under which education is extensively imparted to the poor as well as to the rich. In connection with this system, a Normal school will soon be established for the education of teachers. There is also a college for general education in the higher branches for young men, whose president is N. R. Middleton, a gentleman of high standing and excellent attainments. The Orphan House is one of the handsomest buildings in the city, at which a large number of poor orphans are taken care of and educated. There are many handsome public buildings, of which the new Custom-house, now being built of white marble, will be the largest and most beautiful. What is called the *Battery*, is an extensive promenade on the Bay, on which there are very many handsome private residences, a place of fashionable resort during the warm season, and as a point of recreation, is one of the most beautiful and agreeable in the United States. The military organization of Charleston is very large, and embraces some splendid uniform regiments and companies. One of the most prominent features in the city is the military academy, and the military square, in which is soon to be erected the monument to *Calhoun, Carolina's great statesman*. The suburbs of Charleston are Mount Pleasant and Moultrieville. At the latter place is the famous Fort Moultrie of the Revolution. These suburbs are separated from the city by Cooper River and the Bay.

Outside of Charleston, on the main land, is the Magnolia Cemetery, which is in the course of very handsome improvement.

Two of the finest hotels in the United States can be found in Charleston—the Charleston Hotel and the Mills House. It is my pleasure to spend my time at the first, whose proprietor, Daniel Mier, Esq., has provided for his guests every comfort and every luxury on a fine scale.

I am also under obligations to all the gentlemen editors of the daily press, consisting of the *Mercury*, *Evening News*, and *Courier*, who have shown all kindness in placing facilities in my hand, and also in advancing the interests of our Review.

I found the citizens of Charleston to be intelligent, polite, hospitable, and attentive, and I shall leave this venerable and polished old city with regret. At present business is very brisk, and all appears flourishing and active.

VICKSBURG, MISSISSIPPI.

Vicksburg is romantically situated, in Warren County, State of Mississippi, on the Mississippi River, about four hundred miles above New-Orleans, and six hundred miles below Cairo. Mr. Fillmore, when on a visit here, aptly called it the "*terraced city*," and it has also acquired the sobriquet of the "*city of the hills*." Truly it is a city built on many hills, some of them reaching an altitude of two hundred feet above high-water mark.

The city of Vicksburg is bounded on the north by Watkins, Glass or Winn's bayou, on the east by the east side of the 1st North-street, extending north to the bayou and south to the Southern Railroad; on the south by the Southern Railroad, eastern line of Washington-street and northern line of President Wm. C. Smedes' (formerly Dr. T. J. Peck's) plantation, to the Mississippi River, and on the west by the Mississippi River.

It derives its name from *Mr. Newit Vick*, deceased, and was originally incorporated by an act of the legislature of Mississippi, passed on the 29th day of January, A. D. 1825.

This city is one of the youngest of the South, and belonged to the fast line. It soon obtained a national celebrity, and its growth in population and prosperity was the wonder of the day. Its present population is supposed to be justly about 8,000, not confining the estimate strictly to the "corporate limits," which are not as extended as they should be.

The city of Vicksburg is divided into seven wards, represented by one coun-

clerkman of each ward, and the mayor, who are elected by the qualified voters of the city, and constitute the legislative and executive department of the city. The people also elect a marshal, an assessor, a collector of taxes, an assessor and collector, who is also harbor-master and cotton weigher; a sexton of the grave-yards, a market-master, a hospital physician, and a superintendent.

The business prospects of Vicksburg are more encouraging than they ever were before. The adjacent country is settling very rapidly, and is a fine cotton region. A new trade is just beginning to be secured, by the rapid extension of the Southern Railroad east, and the Vicksburg, Shreveport, and Texas Railroad west. With a spirit of commendable enterprise and liberality, the corporated authorities have been instructed, by a vote of their constituents, to subscribe one hundred thousand dollars in stock to the latter road, with a view to accelerate its construction, and thereby bring to Vicksburg a vast increase of business.

Its public buildings are a splendid court house, which is not quite finished, but supposed to be the finest, largest, and most costly in the state, on the Mississippi River. The cost of erection and grading grounds will amount to \$100,000. It occupies a noble site, on one of the loftiest hills, and will be an object of interest, and an edifice to be admired by the ever-passing crowd, up and down the Mississippi River.

The usual variety of churches, five in all, are well built, commodious, and well attended.

Two hospitals, one a city hospital, capable of accommodating about seventy patients, in the highest degree creditable to the charity and liberal feelings of the citizens; the other, a marine hospital, built and supported by the United States government. During the last year there were over eight hundred patients admitted into the first.

It is well supplied with schools—among the principal and most laudable of them is the *Public School*, supported by a voluntary tax, paid by the citizens, amounting to about five thousand dollars per annum. This institution confers the blessing of a gratuitous education annually on five or six hundred children of both sexes.

COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS OF VICKSBURG.—Vicksburg is most eligibly situated for a large commercial city. Its position must make it a point of the highest importance in railway travel and freightage, to and fro, between the Southern Atlantic cities, Texas, and California. San Diego on the Pacific, El Paso in the western part of New-Mexico, Marshall in Texas, Shreveport in Louisiana, Vicksburg in Mississippi, Montgomery in Alabama, and Savannah in Georgia, are all nearly on the same parallel between the thirty-second and thirty-third degrees of north latitude, thus presenting the most direct and economical line of railway, that can be possibly built, between the Atlantic and Pacific seaports. This route would reduce the railroad time between New-York and San Diego to six days, at twenty miles an hour! Just think!!

The Southern Railroad, going east from Vicksburg, will be built to the Mobile and Ohio Railroad by the latter part of 1860. Why should not this road be called the Vicksburg and Savannah Railroad, with quite as much propriety as the road from Memphis east, is called the Memphis and Charleston Railroad? The distance from Vicksburg, by rail, to Savannah being 663 miles, and from Memphis to Charleston 755 miles.

This conjunction of two such important points as Savannah and Vicksburg in the name of that railway would be quite appropriate, and more suggestive of its true location, than the present indefinite name by which it is known.

The enterprising citizens of this rising city are just about starting a factory, with a capital of one hundred thousand dollars. The ~~the~~ Agricultural and Mechanical Association was originated a ~~the~~ by the adoption of a constitution and the procurement of a ~~the~~ tion. At its inception it was composed of a few members ~~the~~

and the State of Louisiana. Since then, its members have increased, until the roll contains some seventy names, most of whom are life members at a cost of twenty-five dollars each. Thus encouraged, the citizens have proceeded to the selection of fair-grounds, and have appointed a committee to contract for and superintend the erection of all buildings for an exhibition of the products of their plantations and workshops. To do this in an acceptable manner will require an outlay of some four or five thousand dollars, to raise which will require two hundred life members.

President W. A. Lake appeals for immediate aid, not only to the city of Vicksburg and county of Warren, but to the adjacent counties in Mississippi and the neighboring parishes of Louisiana, all whom the Constitution invites to membership.

The "WASHINGTON HOTEL," under its present management of Gen. McMakin, & Maloin, is doing finely. It is one of the best conducted hotels in the country, and its proprietors are unremitting in providing for the comfort of their guests. It is quite convenient to the wharf-boat, railroad depot, and ferry landing; and thus presents great inducements to the *'travelling public.'*

The "Prentiss House," under the superintendence of Mr. J. J. Thomas, is located in the lower part of the city, near the banks of the Mississippi River. It is very well kept, and can also be recommended to sojourners.

There are also many very handsome residences, some of brick and some of wood, beautifully ornamented with gardens, shrubbery, fruit-trees, shade-trees, &c.

FOUNDRIES, MACHINE WORKS, ETC.—The "Vicksburgians" are justly proud of two of the most extensive foundries in the Southwest, the first belonging to Major A. B. Redding, a gentleman of great intelligence, energy and moral wealth. He is also a very old resident of this city, and has done much to build it up. Three large brick buildings, and many cottages for the accommodation of his mechanics, constitute the foundry. Steam-boilers, engines, gin and mill irons of all descriptions, are the principal parts of his manufacture. The second, belonging to A. M. Paxton, Esq., has been recently built of the best material, is constantly increasing in business of importance, and bids fair to do well in manufacturing articles usually constructed in such an enterprise. Mr. Paxton is also an old citizen of the place, and enjoys the reputation of a gentleman of fine character and attainments.

There are two soap factories, one by Samuel Garvin, Esq., and the other by Mr. F. Schwartz, who do a handsome business in manufacturing soap of various kinds, the prices of which fairly compete with the Northern market.

In this place are four fire-engine companies, averaging about forty to fifty members each, who are very efficient in extinguishing fires.

Vicksburg is ably supplied with lawyers, doctors, ministers, school-masters, merchants, mechanics, &c.

Three daily papers—the *Vicksburg Sun*, the *Vicksburg Whig*, and the *True Southron*, all of which have extensive circulations—are published in this city. These offices also furnish each a weekly issue.

The *Sun* is democratic, the *Whig* of its own party, and the *True Southron* neutral in its politics, but eminently Southern in tone.

The city is greatly imbued with the military spirit, having two elegant volunteer companies, the "Vicksburg Volunteers," under the command of Captain I. C. Moore, and the "Sharp Shooters," under the command of Major H. H. Miller. Many of both companies have figured extensively in the war of Mexico, doing great service to the country, and gaining for themselves high distinction in military fame. The latter has been formed and commenced its career since that war, and are ready to meet in battle array the foes of their country.*

The citizens are influenced by a high sense of moral and religious sentiment, and observe as good order as any community of the same size.

* "The Warren County Military Association" was formed some years ago, and have now nearly a hundred members from the city and county, whose contributions auxiliary to the military companies, amount to about \$1,500 a year. Their President is Col. Wm. H. Johnson.

The King of the South—"Cotton"—is the greatest export, numbering about 250,000 bales per annum, reaching the city by the Southern Railroad and Vicksburg and Shreveport and Texas Railroad, on steamboats from the Yazoo Valley, on wagons from the adjoining counties, &c.

The Southern Commercial Convention will meet here on the second Monday of May next, where I hope to meet you, surrounded by the talented patriotism of the South, and where, under the guidance of Providence, may the veil of the future be removed, and much good be done for our country.

3.—SLAVE LABOR IN CITIES.

The Committee on Negro Population of the South Carolina Legislature through its Chairman, J. Harlston Read, Jr., reported at the last session adversely upon several memorials asking for laws prohibiting slaves from hiring their own time, working at the mechanical arts, etc., etc. The following is extracted from the report :

The evil complained of is, that slaves are permitted to go at large, exercise all the privileges of free persons, make contracts, do work, and in every way live and conduct themselves as if they were not slaves. It seems to the Committee that the evil is the same, whether the slave so working out on his own account is a mechanic or handicraftsman, a stevedore, a laborer, a porter, a drayman, or anything else. The evil is, he buys the control of his own time from his owner. By the payment of a stipulated amount of wages, he avoids the discipline and surveillance of his master, and is separated from his observation and superintendence. We agree fully with the memorialists, who complain of this evil—but the ground is much more general than the specific one set up in these bills. The evil lies in the breaking down the relation between master and slave—the removal of the slave from the master's discipline and control, and the assumption of freedom and independence on the part of the slave, the idleness, disorder and crime which are consequential, and the necessity thereby created for additional police regulations to keep them in subjection and order, and the trouble and expense which these involve.

Yet there is something to be said in relation to carrying that principle into effect. We are, as a slaveholding people, habituated to slave labor. Slave labor constitutes, and ought to constitute, the bulk of the agricultural and domestic labor of our State. We have towns and villages, however, where ordinary labor is to be performed which can be done by either whites or negroes. We are accustomed to black labor, and it would create a revolution to drive it away. The domestic servants, most of the common laborers and porters, draymen, wagoners, cartmen, and on the seaboard, the stevedores, are mostly negroes; but they are all included in the general inhibition of the acts of 1822 and 1849. It would be impossible to have this sort of slave labor, if there must be a contract with the owner for every specific job—as, for instance, the transportation of a load in a wagon or dray, the carrying of a passenger's trunk to or from a railroad, &c. The subject, therefore, is full of difficulty, and until you can change the direction of the public prejudice, prepossession and habit, you can never enforce a law which conflicts with them.

4.—FREE NEGRO LEGISLATION IN MISSOURI.

The first marked and direct raving of the freesoil sentiment, in Missouri, was compassed in the Lower House of the State Legislature on Wednesday last. The Democracy and the slaveholders have met the rising feeling, and encountered it with open hostility. A bill in regard to free negroes was passed, which provides that no slave shall be deemed emancipated till his master shall have entered into bonds in the sum of two thousand dollars, to remove the negro from the State within ninety days after the act of emancipation, and if any negro who may thus have been transported from the State shall return, he shall be reduced to slavery. All free negroes who may be residents of the State in eighteen hundred and sixty are declared to be slaves, and the sheriff is authorized to sell them under the provisions of the act. The clause is made applicable only to them

persons who may have come into the State subsequent to the sixteenth of February, eighteen hundred and forty-seven, and their descendants. All free negroes over the age of eighteen are to be notified, on or before the first Monday of August next, of the existence of this act, by the sheriffs of the different counties, and twelve months is allowed in which to leave the State. Provision is made by which a free negro over twenty-one years of age may select a master or mistress in the State, after which he is to be regarded as a slave.

5.—SLAVERY IN NEW-MEXICO.

Negro slavery is fully recognized, and property in slaves amply protected, by a recent act of the New-Mexican Legislature. This act passed unanimously in one branch, and without a dissenting voice in the other.

This act defines such as are treated in it as slaves to be persons of African descent, and is not to be construed so as to include peons.

It denounces the same penalty for killing a slave, that is visited on the homicide of a white man. For stealing or enticing away a slave, the penalty is not less than four years' imprisonment, and may be ten, and a fine of not less than five hundred nor more than two thousand dollars. Accomplices in the stealing are treated as principals. Any person fraudulently furnishing slaves free papers is liable to an imprisonment of not less than six months nor more than five years, and a fine of not less than one hundred nor more than one thousand dollars. Any person endeavoring to excite a slave to insurrection, conspiracy or rebellion, is punishable by imprisonment of not less than three months nor more than three years, and a fine of not less than twenty-five nor more than one thousand dollars. The same penalty is denounced on whoever, save his master, gives, sells, or hires to a slave a deadly weapon; and also, the same for trading with a slave without the written permission of the master, expressing the article of traffic; also, the same for forging such a permit. Gaming with slaves is prohibited under a penalty of not over one hundred dollars or three months' imprisonment. Sheriffs are to take custody of runaway slaves; and in twelve months, if no owner appear after an advertisement for that length of time, shall sell him. Persons failing properly to provide for the support of their slaves may be required to give bond to do it. Inhuman treatment of a slave is punished by a fine of not more than one thousand dollars and imprisonment of not more than one year. Slave owners are prohibited from allowing their slaves to hire out their own time. Disorderly conduct of a slave in public and insolence to white men, is punished by stripes not exceeding thirty-nine; so may other offences of a slave, the punishment of which for a white man would be a fine. No slave can give evidence against a white man.

Marriage between whites and negroes or mulattoes is prohibited. Emancipation is prohibited. A person holding a free negro as a slave, is liable to imprisonment for not less than five nor more than ten years, and a fine of not less than five hundred nor more than two thousand dollars.

Such an act may be regarded as very sufficiently recognizing negro slavery in New-Mexico. It is not probable, however, that any benefit will be derived from it, save to the few persons in the territories—mostly temporary residents going in from the United States—who may use slaves as domestic servants. Politically, slave owners have hitherto, without any special legislation, been free to carry in and out of the territory their slaves, and employ them there. The present act simply gives an undeniable legal recognition to slaveholding there.

6.—NORTH LOUISIANA.

Mr. Donner, who has removed from Georgia to North Louisiana, speaks as follows of this growing and inviting section of the State:

Claiborne Parish is a high region, hilly and undulating, resembling Morgan, Jones, and Jasper counties, in Georgia, with perpetual streams running through it, skirted with rich bottom land. But all the lands produce well, both the bottom and uplands. The principal growth is cotton; but astonishing crops of corn, peas, pumpkins, potatoes, &c., are produced also; and vegetables, and all manner of fruits, are raised, and may be grown in great abundance and

luxuriance. The country is well-timbered and with an abundance of excellent springs, with a cool and pure water that gushes from the hills of my "native Georgia" well water can be had anywhere. And, what is very rare, as before stated, plenty of perpetual streams, for stock water. In fact, I do not know a region of country so thriving and industrious a class of people, than is Calcasieu Parish in particular. I firmly believe it is the best country in the Southwest. There can be no local sphere where the air is fresh and exhilarating, and the water is pure. A planter has health to till his land, which rarely elsewhere is so delightful and cheering to the admiring eye as the exuberance of the maturing crops; and then he can readily sell, at good prices, all he raises. What people want? And when I speak of this, I do not imagine the picture of a "fairy land," such as the

"Where skies are never clouded,
And the voice of nightingales
Never is hushed;"

but I speak of things as they are—I speak to friends in common sense—and I feel assured that simple facts are

The society here is such as no one could complain of in the age of this country. We have good schools and good teachers—able preachers—handsome and intelligent men. In Mindon, which is on the western border of this parish, at the head of steamboat navigation, the best female college in the State, and a good male school. We have an excellent female collegiate institute, a good brick male college in the course of construction, a Methodist Church, and will soon be finished. From this prosperous little town—some eight or ten prosperous papers—and many kind-hearted, intelligent, and well-to-do in the centre, as it were, of a charming country, advantages we have here over other portions of the State, that my old friends and acquaintances would doubtless improve their fortunes by moving out here. A less they would then say, as the great and beautiful "that the half had not been told them."

7.—CALCASIEU PARISH, LOUISIANA

The following may form a part of the statistics of Louisiana:

The name is derived from a tribe of Indians formerly but now nearly extinct, the few remaining being still preserving their peculiar habits and customs.

BOUNDARIES.—East by Rapides, St. Landry and Iberville, south by Sabine River, north by Sabine Parish, and south by Calcasieu Parish.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS.—Sabine on the west, Mentaur and Calcasieu River running through the centre, tributary to the Gulf—all navigable for steam or sail vessels. Population about 4,000.

The surface of the country is level in the southern portion, rolling in the northern portion; consisting of either a rich soil, or equally extensive timbered country on the one hand, to the stock-raiser or the agriculturist.

The soil along the coast and about the rivers grows cotton and cane in abundance, and peculiarly well the Mentaur and Calcasieu Rivers to the sugar-cane. The sweet and Irish potato grow well, and return for the planting.

Where the timber is scarce the land produces rice readily, and in quantities sufficient to make it a lucrative business to any who might engage in its culture.

Pasturage over the entire parish is very fine, offering great inducements to the stock-raiser, the grasses growing being excellent for horses, mules, sheep and cattle, all of which do well.

The soil through the central portion is poor, and only calculated for stock, but the northern portion contains some of the finest cotton, corn and sugar lands.

There are several mineral and some chalybeate springs, and there is also a spring near the Calcasieu River producing a substance similar to petroleum and sulphur, and which possesses considerable curative powers in chronic cutaneous diseases.

Lands are cheap, ranging from 50 cents to \$10 per acre, according to location and quality, a large portion being public and subject to entry.

Of timber, the principal growths are white, red, water and live oaks, hickory, alnut, sassafras, magnolia, cypress, elm, post oak, ash and pine, of which last named kind there is an immense amount, as near one half the parish is a dense pine region, which has until a few years past been untouched, and which now gives employment to six or seven mills on the Sabine, and five on the Calcasieu, and two others are about to be built on the Calcasieu.

The cypress on the Sabine, Calcasieu and Mentaur (one mill on Mentaur saws only cypress), is either sawed into lumber, or made into shingles, staves, &c., and shipped to Texas for sale. One extensive shingle machine is in successful operation on the Sabine, at the town of Orange.

The amount of pine and cypress sawed on the Sabine, Mentaur and Calcasieu, and shipped to Texas, is about six or seven millions of feet annually, and rapidly increasing; and all that is needed is State aid to remove the bars at the mouths of the three streams, so that vessels of larger size can enter the river, and this parish will be able to compete successfully with Mobile and Mississippi in the lumber trade.

There are three or four thousand bales of cotton produced annually, in the northern part of the parish, which is hauled to Alexandria, a distance of ninety miles, and shipped to New-Orleans, which would come down the Calcasieu and to Galveston if we had steamers running here; for the river is navigable for ninety to one hundred miles for small steamers, while a much larger amount is shipped down the Sabine, and thence to New-Orleans, by steamship. The parish is very healthy (another inducement to the settler) while the air is abundant in game, among which are deer, turkeys, geese, brants, ducks and swans (and these, too, in abundance), while the streams are well stocked with a variety of fish, thus affording sport to those who may desire it, besides affording a means of support to the settler. Of fruits, the orange, fig and peach

well; and several fine orange orchards, already in the vicinity of Lake Arles and other parts, are giving their owners a fine yield for their pains, while the fig and peach can be grown anywhere if planted and cared for. Fruits of all kinds do well. All kinds of garden vegetables come well, if properly cared for; and in fact there is no reason for any one to want here who is not engaged in some ordinary industry.—*Galveston News*.

8.—PROSPERITY OF FRANCE.

	1789.	1850.
Ploughed land.....	26,500,000 hectares*	28,000,000
Vineyard	1,500,000 "	2,000,000
Wood	9,000,000 "	8,000,000
Pasture land.....	8,000,000 "	4,000,000
Heath waste	10,000,000 "	8,000,000
Total.....	50,000,000 "	50,000,000

* A hectare is equal to 2 1/2-100 acres.

In sixty years we find, therefore, that the extent of four millions nine hundred and forty thousand acres, four hundred and seventy thousand acres, while of (terres de labour) is increased by three millions seven hundred and eighty thousand acres; pastures two millions four hundred and thirty-five thousand acres.

The crop of wine this year is wonderfully fine, could be made with money than to buy it in quantity appears from accounts from Greece, to have transpired and there is threatened for next year a deficit of France are scarcely commensurate with what should be but if the ground gained be inconsiderable, improvement applicable, as may be seen from another tabulation :

	1789.
Fallow land.....	10,000,000 hects
Wheat	4,000,000 "
Rye, &c.....	7,000,000 "
Oats	2,000,000 "
Artificial pastures. . . .	1,000,000 "
Root vegetables.....	100,000 "

The produce of silk is quintupled. Sugar has doubled. In 1789, the mean wages of a farm hand at present, they are thirty cents; and one more tal the division of profit per hectare (2 47-100 acres) :

	1789.	
Rent.....	12 francs.	18
Farmer.....	5 "	6
Accessory.	1 "	2
Taxes and tithes.....	7 "	4
Salaries.....	25 "	32
Total.....	50	62

9.—HOW ARKANSAS DEALS WITH HER

Whilst the free blacks are an anxious subject of southern states, none of them has acted with the same the State of Arkansas, which had, by the census of 1850, a class only within her limits. The act of the last session on this subject is so important, that we give it entire :

An Act to Remove the Free Negroes and Mulattoes

SEC. 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of this State that no free negro or mulatto shall be permitted to reside in this State after the first day of January, A.D. 1860.

SEC. 2. Be it further enacted, That if any free negro or mulatto, of twenty-one years, shall be found within the limits of this State after the first day of January, A.D. 1860, it shall be the duty of the sheriff of the county to arrest, without any warrant, such free negro or mulatto, giving twenty days' notice, at five of the most public places in the county, to hire him out at public outcry at the court-house for the term of twelve months; and the person so hired shall be required to give bonds with good and sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the sheriff, for the said free negro or mulatto, and furnish him with the clothing that is usually given to hired slaves; that the price of hiring the said free negro or mulatto shall be paid to said sheriff, and which shall be paid to said free negro or mulatto by the sheriff, and expires for which he was hired, with instructions

State within thirty days ; Provided, that the free negro or mulatto so hired shall be taken and held for the time he is hired out, as slaves are now held ; if at the expiration of thirty days any of the aforementioned free negroes or mulattoes are found within the State, he or she shall be arrested by the sheriff, and dealt with in accordance with the third and fourth sections of this act.

SEC. 3. Be it further enacted, That it shall be the duty of such sheriffs to report to the prosecuting attorney, at the first term of the circuit court of his county, after arresting any free negro or mulatto, under provisions of the last clause of second section of this act, the names of such free negro or mulatto ; and it shall be the duty of the prosecuting attorney to make presentment against said free negro or mulatto forthwith to the Circuit Court, and upon such presentment it shall be the duty of the court to immediately empanel a jury to try such free negro or mulatto ; and if the jury find a verdict against said free negro or mulatto, the court shall render judgment against him, or her, that he or she shall be sold at public auction to the highest bidder.

SEC. 4. Be it further enacted, That immediately after the adjournment of said court, after the rendition of the judgment as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of the clerk of said court to issue a writ of venditioni exponas to the sheriff of said county, directing him to sell such negro or mulatto, after giving twenty days' notice of the time and place of said sale. Such sale shall be made at the court house door to the highest bidder for cash ; and the purchaser at such sale shall acquire a good and valid title to such negro or mulatto, which shall be recognized in courts of law or equity in this State ; Provided, that in case of any of the negroes or mulattoes so offered for sale, and sold under the provisions of this section, shall be the mother of a child, or children, under the age of seven years, the purchaser shall be required to take such child, or children, and may keep them until they arrive at the age of twenty-one years, when such purchaser shall give such child or children, each, one suit of comfortable clothing and twenty-five dollars, and such child, or children, shall immediately depart beyond the limits of this State ; and if he, she, or they, shall remain, or shall be found within this State three months after his or their arrival at the age of twenty-one years, he, she, or they shall be dealt with in accordance with the second, third, and fourth sections of this act ; Provided such purchaser may, if he or she desire it, deliver said child or children to the sheriff upon their arrival at the age or seven years, to be hired out in accordance with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 5. Be it further enacted, that the proceeds of the sale of any such free negro or mulatto, after paying all costs (to be paid out of the proceeds of the sale of said negro or mulatto) accrued in the execution of this act, shall be paid into the county treasury.

SEC. 6. Be it further enacted, That it shall be the duty of the sheriffs of the several counties in this State, to seize and take into custody all free negroes and mulattoes found in their respective counties after the first day of January, A. D. 1860, between the ages of seven and twenty-one years ; and he shall on the first day of the next term of the Circuit Court, hire them out to the highest bidder at the court-house door until they arrive at the age of twenty-one years.

The proceeds of such hiring to be placed in the county treasury, to be paid to such free negro or mulatto, as soon as he or she shall arrive at the age of twenty-one years, and agrees to leave this State as the law directs. That if said hirer shall sell or offer to sell said hired minor negro or mulatto, he, she, or they shall be deemed guilty of the crime of kidnapping ; Provided, that if any such minor shall be the mother of children under the age of seven years, the hirer shall take such children until the mother shall arrive at the age of twenty-one years, and she shall, if she leave the State in accordance with the provisions of this act, be required to remove such child or children beyond the limits of this State ; Provided further, That all such free negroes or mulattoes who shall have been, prior to the passage of this act, bound or apprenticed under existing laws, shall, on the expiration of such apprenticeship, be liable to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 7. Be it further enacted, That upon the arrival of such free negro or mulatto at the age of twenty-one years, he or she shall forthwith leave the

State; and in case such negro or mulatto shall be for months after the expiration of his or her term of arrested, and dealt with as is provided in sections 2, 3

Sec. 8. Be it further enacted, That any free negro to reside in this State, may choose, either before or mistress, and upon such free negro or mulatto appeal of the Circuit Courts of this State, the said court in sent of the master or mistress, render judgment that shall be the property of such master or mistress; evidence of title to said negro or mulatto, in any court State, and such negro or mulatto shall be held by such same manner as slaves are held in this State. That shall be required to take the minor child or children mulatto upon the same terms as are required of the or mulattoes, by section four of this act; Provided, if Circuit Court, before entering judgment as aforesaid mistress to enter into bonds with good and sufficient value of said negro or mulatto, conditioned that he or free negro or mulatto to act as a free person, or permit hire their own time; Provided further, that when a chooses a master or mistress, under the provisions of the duty of the judge of the Circuit Court to appoint of the county in which said free negro or mulatto may negro or mulatto, and the master or mistress so choose half of such valuation into the county treasury of the

Sec. 9. Be it further enacted, That the prosecuting for each presentment and judgment obtained under the sum of twenty dollars, to be taxed as costs, and the ten dollars for arresting each negro or mulatto, under act; and in addition to his regular fees the clerk shall are allowed by law for similar services, to be taxed as

Sec. 10. Be it further enacted, That it shall not hereafter to emancipate any slaves in this State.

Sec. 11. Be it further enacted, That it shall be the to make provision out of the proceeds of the sales mulattoes, for the support of children under the age no mothers, and who cannot be put out for their food aged and infirm negroes and mulattoes, who may be a of leaving the State, or cannot be sold after being appointed minors, and aged and infirm negroes and mulattoes, at house of the county, and in every respect to be treated

Sec. 12. Be it further enacted, That all laws or provisions herewith, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

Approved, 12th February, 1859.

3.—PAUPERISM IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Statement showing the Total Amount Expended for the Relief of Paupers, with the average rate per Individual of the Population for the Kingdom of Great Britain.

England and Wales.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
Year.	Population.	Average.	Population.	Average.	Population.	Average.	Population.	Average.
1855	29,450,205	\$1 50	3,058,925	\$1 01	4,249,755	\$0 62		
1856	30,021,220	1 50	3,146,745	1 04	3,666,060	53		
1857	29,493,780	1 47	3,177,360	1 05	3,097,570	45		
Year.	England and Wales.	Per ct.	Scotland.	Per ct.	Ireland.	Per ct.		
1855	897,686	4.8	120,471	4.1	89,619	1.4		
1856	917,084	4.8	120,867	4.1	73,525	1.1		
1857	855,010	4.6	115,213	3.9	56,910	0.9		

The above is extracted from recent Parliamentary reports.

The ratio of decrease of pauperism, during the three years, is largely in favor of Ireland. This fact would seem to confirm the recent encouraging intelligence, received from that long-depressed portion of the British dominions.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

SEVERAL interesting and valuable contributions and papers are upon our table upon the subject of the *Levees and outlets* of the Mississippi and the drainage of its low lands, which will receive our attention at an early day. Among them are:

1st. A special Report relative to the cost of draining the swamp lands bordering on Lake Pontchartrain, by Lewis G. De Russy.

2nd. The Outlets and Levees of the Mississippi, by J. G. Barnard, U. S. Engineers.

3rd. Improvement of the Mississippi river, by Albert Stein.

4th. Report on the proposed system of Drainage for the first Draining District of New-Orleans, by Major G. T. Beauregard, Chief Engineer.

On the ninth day of the present month, the *Southern Convention* is expected to assemble at Vicksburg, Miss., and large delegations will doubtless be in attendance from the several Southern States. The proceedings will appear in our pages for June, to take their place among those of previous Conventions for the last fifteen years. The following is the address of the Committee:

To the People of the Slaveholding States:

FELLOW CITIZENS—A committee, consisting of J. D. B. DeBow of Louisiana, Hon. John A. Quitman of Mississippi, Hon. Guy M. Bryan of Texas, Hon. W. S. Yancey of Alabama, and Major W. H. Chase of Florida, was appointed

meeting of the Convention in Vicksburg, Miss., on the ninth day of May next.

The lamented decease of Gen. Quitman, created soon after a vacancy in the committee, which was filled with the name of Gen. J. J. McRae.

The committee cannot believe that an argument is necessary to demonstrate to the people of the slaveholding States the importance of union among themselves, and of mutual good understanding in the origination and discussion of questions essential to their security and repose.

Of this nature are the questions which come annually before the Convention; and whatever diversity of opinion exists in regard to some of them, it cannot be doubted that the light which the discussions elicit, and the conflict of mind and mind which they induce, exercise an influence most salutary, and keep alive a spirit favorable to patriotism.

The presence annually at the Convention of a large number of men of position and character from every section of the South, and of a large representation from the masses of the people, not under the restraints of party, and in no wise obligated to do its behests, and the free interchange of opinion which takes place among them, is itself an important feature of the Convention, and, in the absence of every other, should insure its perpetuity.

It is only from such assemblages that, in periods of great public peril, the hopes of the patriot can be realized—as the colonial history of the country evinces.

There is no name honored in the councils, or revered in the hearts of the South, from the earliest period of its history to the present, that may not be claimed as authority for everything that is sought by the Convention. From such patriotic sources have come warnings of danger, against which the Convention would provide, and appeals for action to which the Convention would respond; and if any of these are now found to be in conflict with it, or interposing discouragements, com-

which has been evidenced by the recent triumph of Black Republicanism in every free State of the North, and its seemingly secured majorities in the Electoral College.

Fellow-citizens of the South, let us not be lulled into sleep and dreams of security, which experience teaches can only prove to be illusory, for opposition to slavery has entered into the head and heart of the people of the North, and can only be met by wisdom and firmness on the part of the South.

The power which threatened us in its infancy and weakness, unless met and rebuked, is not likely to take a step backward in the hour of its highest triumph, whatever to the contrary it may be to the interest or the want of nerve in politicians to teach.

There is much for the Convention, however, to do beyond the discussion of political questions, important as are these, for within its purview comes everything that relates to the intellectual, moral, educational and industrial development of the South. To create opinion is to create things.

The executives of the several States and the various municipal bodies of the South are earnestly requested to send such delegates as will best represent the opinions of the body of the people.

The ninth day of May will be a favorable time to visit Vicksburg, and the citizens of that hospitable community invite to the waters of the Mississippi the people of the Atlantic States and of the Gulf.

Delegates to recent Conventions are invited to this.

In a late number of the Review, we denounced in appropriate terms the governmental "convocation," as it was called, of "agriculturists" at the seat of government, under the auspices of the Patent Office. Congress, it seems, has taken the same view of the matter with ourselves, for in the recent appropriation bill appears the following clause:

Provided, That no part of the appropriation shall be used or expended in defraying the expenses of a body of men or delegates assembled in Washington, or elsewhere, as an agricultural college or advisory board of agriculture, convened under the authority of the Secretary of the Interior, or any other person, under any name, for any object whatever

Every body remembers the preposterous work on *Southern Slavery*, by one Helper, claiming to be of North Carolina, but really of New-England, which has been so often exposed and ridiculed among us. The abolitionists are, however, making the most of it, and some one of them, more impudent than the rest, has sent a circular, in which it is proposed to print a cheap and condensed edition of the work for gratuitous distribution throughout the land. The moral of the matter is, that while some of us are crying "peace," "peace," the enemy is

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tering into compact with foreign nations with force of arms to suppress it? We ask, is not this a direct contradiction, in words, terms, and action? Can there be an onslaught on the institution, and no onslaught at the same time? Is not this equivocation and manifest contradiction, and insult to common sense? Can a fountain send forth bitter water and sweet at the same time? Can a house stand that is divided against itself? Hence it is solely owing, in our humble opinion, that all our troubles and convulsions in the halls of Congress and out of it, are to be ascribed to this double action, or double dealing of Congress in the matter of African slavery. Where is the propriety or fitness or evenness in action, to send a U. S. Marshal to aid in the re-capture of a runaway slave in any of the mis-called free States, and at the same time having a fleet on the African coast to intercept and suppress it altogether. If any one can solve this riddle—why then we confess he is more ahead than we are, and most cheerfully resign to him the palm of victory in discrimination.

The Hon. Judge Douglas said, in some of his speeches in Illinois, that it was never in the imagination or contemplation in the "act" of confederation, that the several States should be alike in their internal and domestic affairs; that, in particular, climate, and soil, and production, required different kinds of laborers and institutions. Now, with this concession from so good a quarter, (though not in the least new), we cannot but assert, that this plainest of interpretations and natural sense of things, is flatly contradicted by every measure of Congress for years gone by. Is not her navy, for years kept on the coast of Africa for the suppression of the trade, at direct variance with, and forms a true contradiction to, the interpretation and correct meaning of the "act" of confederacy just now noticed? Is not this language and these measures, using a forked tongue? Do they not involve a contradiction and thing impracticable, and as near as may be, an absurdity? Was not the seizure and capture and confiscation of the brig Echo, a direct preventive of the people of a certain latitude, from the use of that kind of laborers only, and property suitable to their climate, soil, and production? Is not this an intervention and prohibition of the right of sovereign States? If such a prodigal, lawless procedure is not a direct breach of the "act" of confederacy, we may wait a thousand years and be unable to find a clearer case in point, or a more perfect disannulment of the Union. No wonder that our halls of Congress should be harassed and disturbed, and the country convulsed and on the borders of dissolution, arising solely from such contradictory and lawless proceedings in Congress.

Ever since the time that Congress first took action to suppress the slave trade, at that crisis and moment were sown the seeds of disunion, and the act of confederacy set at naught and annulled; and we may wonder, and be surprised with gladness, that up to this hour that these incendiary proceedings have produced no worse fruits than sectional divisions, and rancorous feelings and disputations of men with some exceptions, indeed, of a more heinous character, when the planter went in pursuit of his abducted slave, and the bitter contentions in Kansas. And when disunion comes, as come it will, if the present measures of Congress be persisted in, then will be the

consummation of measures—it may be slow in working, but sure in its progress and ultimate triumph. Well has it been said, "Save me from my friends, leave me to my enemies."

We tender our thanks to D. Appleton & Co., of New-York, for the following interesting works:

1. *Letters of a Traveller*.—Second series, by Wm. Cullen Bryant, 1859. These letters were written by the distinguished author, during several visits to Europe.

2. *The Foster Brothers*—being a history of the school and college life of two young men, 1859. The work is well adapted to the use of parents as well as of youth.

3. *The Laws and Practice of Whist*, by Cælebs. This is an excellent little hand-book, issued in handsome style, and comes under the auspices of the celebrated "Portland Club of London."

CHILDS & PETERSON, of Philadelphia, we learn from the *Publishers' Journal*, have just issued the first volume of a work, which has for a long time past been in preparation, and the publication of which has been eagerly looked for by all who take an interest in literary matters: "*A Critical Dictionary of English Literature, and British and American Authors, Living and Deceased, from the Earliest Accounts to the Middle of the Nineteenth Century: Containing Thirty Thousand Biographies and Literary Notices, with Forty Indexes of Subjects*." By N. AUSTIN ALLIBONE. It is beyond the legitimate province of this journal to do more than present the most patent features of works offered for its consideration; nor would the thorough criticism of this be a task which even the greatest learning might undertake without apprehension, or the greatest industry accomplish without the necessity of repose. And in respect to Mr. Allibone's great work, there are so many apparent and unquestionable points of interest, such a variety of usefulness, so many important applications of which it is capable, each bearing a proportion of actual and practical value, so far above the price at which the enterprising publishers have put it in the market, that it would be almost a work of supererogation to do more than merely mention its title. The industry of its author, which seems never to have been relaxed, manifests itself in many collateral labors besides the special purpose of his work, and

the most persevering student will hardly find a lifetime sufficient to exhaust this immense collection; a collection no less remarkable for its abstract interest than for its immediate and available information.

La Plata, Paraguay, and the Argentine Confederation. The work of Capt. Page, published by Harper & Brothers, is thus noted by a contemporary:

This volume appears quite opportunely, now that our difficulties with Paraguay,—originating mainly with the expedition whose history is here given,—are about to be pressed to a settlement, either amicable or otherwise. The collision between the "Water Witch," the vessel in which much of this exploration was made, and the government of Paraguay, was a leading incident among those which have caused the difficulties between Paraguay and this country, to settle which, we have sent out to assist our diplomacy the largest naval force that the United States ever despatched upon a warlike errand. At the same time the reports of that exploration contain the best accounts yet collated, of the approaches to Paraguay and its means of defence. The present publication is given, the author tells us, as an answer to inquiries "for more detailed information about that section of South America," than was found in his official report. It contains a full and lively narrative of the whole movements of the expedition, with an introduction, giving a sketch of the history of the country, and is accompanied by a large map of the basin of La Plata, and illustrated by many engravings. It is not only a very agreeable book, but is a valuable contribution to our scanty knowledge of the interior of the southern half of our continent.

We are indebted to B. Perley Poore, Secretary, for a copy of the *Transactions and Monthly Bulletin of the United States Agricultural Society*, for 1859, which constitutes a very neat volume of some 300 pages, of very valuable matter.

We call especial attention to the new advertisements of several New-Orleans houses in the pages of the Review, viz: O. O. Woodman, and J. Wright & Co., Wholesale Druggists; N. Gilman, Agricultural Machinery Engines; Newton Richards, Marble

and Lime Yard; Ed. M. Ivins, Agricultural Machinery, etc. These are all extensive establishments, where our country friends can be supplied on the most accommodating and liberal terms. The Daguerrean Gallery of Jacobs is a very extensive one, on Camp street. Our subscribers will always do well to consult the advertising pages of the Review.

We call attention specially to the card of George G. Henry, of Mobile, patentee of the process of converting raw cotton into yarns on the plantation. We have often referred to this subject in our pages, and given the most voluminous statistics and information upon it. The matter is no longer an experiment. Many planters have adopted the process the present season, and have ordered the necessary machinery. Others are preparing very soon to enter the field. We have ourselves seen the yarn, purchased from a plantation where the machinery has been in active, in handsome mercantile condition, and of the most superior quality, by one of our wholesale houses, and learn that the market for it in New-Orleans is unlimited. It will be purchased as fast as received. We sincerely commend this great matter to the attention of the whole planting community, as one by which it is demonstrated they can double at least the net revenue of their estates.

The following beautiful property is offered for sale by one of our subscribers:

ROSE MONT,

One of the loveliest spots in Tennessee.

FOR SALE.

Situated three miles from Nashville, on the Murfreesboro' turnpike and within a few minutes' walk of the Nashville and Chattanooga R. R. Male and female colleges and academies within favorable distances.

The place contains 150 acres more or less, about one half in cultivation, balance is timber (75 acres of the best could be purchased separately if desired.) In the very highest state of cultivation; splendidly watered—availing of the finest springs upon it.

Rose Mont is literally covered with orchards of every variety of fruit known in State—evergreens and shrubbery of a description—in fact, everything to make country home desirable.

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Box 120, Nashville

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

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JUNE, 1859.

VOL. XXVI., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 6, N. S.

ART. I.—THE VALLEYS OF VIRGINIA—THE RAPPAHANNOCK.

THE town now called Tappahannock was first called Hobbes' Hole, or Hobbes his Hole, afterward New-Plymouth, and finally Tappahannock. The first attempt to establish it was by an act of the House of Burgesses, in 1680, which recites: "This present General Assembly having taken into their serious consideration the great necessity, usefulness, and advantages of cohabitation, in this his majesty's country of Virginia, and observing and foreseeing the great extremities his majesty's subjects here must necessarily fall under, by the present and continued lowness of the price of tobacco, the only commodity and manufacture of this country," &c., &c.

The act proceeds to establish towns (on paper) at various navigable points in Eastern Virginia. None on the Rappahannock higher up than Tappahannock, while the same act establishes one at the mouth of Aquia creek, on the Potomac, which is a hundred miles above, and farther into the interior than Tappahannock. Several other attempts were made to build a town, by law, at this point, but all seem to have failed till the act of 1744. The county-seat of Essex had been, in the meantime, located here. The town of Urbanna, situated on the river about ten miles from its mouth, was also established by the act of 1680, on the land of Ralph Wormley.

The distance by the river from Tappahannock to the Chesapeake bay is about sixty miles; the width of the river from two to more than three miles. Throughout its course it contains numerous and extensive oyster banks, from which hundreds of thousands of bushels of what are called "rock" oysters, are annually taken, and planted in the adjoining coves, creeks, and inlets. In a year or two they become large and fat oysters, and sell where caught for fifty cents a

bushel. The cultivation of oysters is as profitable pursuit, in a large portion of East that of wheat, corn, or tobacco. Baltimore chiefly from the oyster "*fundum*" of Virginia trade is larger, and much more lucrative, wheat and corn combined. New-York, Haven, and Boston, also procure large supplies the waters of Virginia. They are wholly catching them they are culled, and the surplus overboard, which soon renew the beds or beds since, we saw hundreds of boats gathering on Roads, to plant elsewhere; and several by the same way, in Elizabeth river, within a mile has been going on there for more than two amount of oysters is undiminished.

Mr. Wise does not overrate the immense property, when railroads from the Ohio to the eastern coast, and strike the oyster and fishing points. We might, almost, dispense with fishing and oystering licenses. The fisheries produce the annual sum of six millions. are ten times as valuable. A million of her caught on the Potomac at a single haul—prices, seven thousand dollars. Herrings, sheep's head, drum, black fish, croker, pering mullet, soft crabs, and hundreds of oysters are found in the Rappahannock, in the its hundreds of Virginia tributaries.

They only need a market to make them the whole agriculture of the State. The Railroad, when completed, will furnish it. The honor and the interest of Virginia speedy completion. The costive, hide-bogies of Eastern Virginia, who used to of State improvement, have either died out of their "let-alone" politico-economical "nothing" doctrines of political economy fashion. Charleston, once the focus of become the active head and centre of the advocates *State protection* to State work Political economy, which teaches that government nothing, and individuals everything, has, course of the South.

The lands on either side the river, but are generally level. This region, includi

King and Queen, and King William, abounds with the richest marl. It has been used to great advantage on the lands. The lower-tide water section of Virginia, under a system of improved farming, is as fertile and more productive now than it was two centuries ago. Eastern Virginians are improving their lands about as fast as the people of the north and northwest are exhausting theirs. The farmers of this section are wealthy, and the most enlightened agricultural class in the world. In Europe the *land-owners* are equally enlightened, but they are not the farmers. In the North, high civilization avoids the country, and crowds into the large cities. The slaveholding farmers of the entire South much resemble those of Eastern Virginia. The agricultural products of the South keep the world in awe, and command the respect of sovereigns while they feed and clothe their subjects.

The principal creeks emptying into the river, below Tappahannock, are Parritt's, Grain's, Lockly, Urbanna, Mill, and Sturgeon creek, on the south side; and Cat Point, Farnham, Totuskey, Maratico, Curritoman, Carter's, and Deep creek, on the north side. All these creeks are famous for the abundance of their fish, oysters, crabs, turtle, and wild fowl. The lands adjoining them and all along the river are fertile and productive, and owned by a highly intelligent and moral population. Just below the mouth of Rappahannock, extending from the Piankitank to the York river, are the counties of Gloucester and Mathews.

This peninsula is indented by Mobjack or Mockjack bay with its tributaries, the Severn, Ware, East, and North rivers, or rather bays. Here again we find rich level lands, and illimitable supplies of fish and oysters. At low tide the negro children pick up the exposed oysters to feed their pigs and fowls with, and crabs, soft and hard, are so abundant as to be little valued for food. Very many of the descendants of the first settlers, the old aristocracy of Virginia, still reside in these counties, and are distinguished for refinement and hospitality. They are, besides, excellent farmers, and are fast improving their lands.

Clover and peas, lime, guano, and plaster, are, as well as marl, much used as improvers of the soil in Eastern Virginia. But what avail mere agricultural wealth and improvement, while our "do-nothing" philosophy and practice enable others to reap the fruits of our labors? Baltimore sends her steamers, and New-York and New-England their vessels, to carry off our grain in exchange for necessities and luxuries which we should have made at home. The constant draught on our lands

by consumption abroad of the crops which should be returned to them as manure, would long since have impoverished any country not underlaid with marl, as all tide-water Virginia is. But the draught, in our minds, is still more pernicious. Until lately mechanical and manufacturing skill (which are wealth of themselves, as well as producers of wealth) were almost unknown in Virginia. Education, too, drooped, and we were equally dependent on New-England for teachers and preachers, pig-yokes, wheat-rakes, and horse-collars. "Let it alone," said the old fogies, "demand will regulate supply and bring all right." Thirty years ago ship-timber, white-oak, cedar, and locust, abounded in Eastern Virginia. The Yankees sent men to cut it, carried it to New-England, and there built the very vessels which carry off all our grain and some of our negroes. Finally, *State* legislation might have made us a ship-building and ship-owning people. Now, our "let-alone," "do-nothing" policy will prevent us from becoming builders or owners of vessels, until our railroads intersect tide-water, and furnish timber from the far interior. Ship-building, and all other mechanical and manufacturing pursuits, are more profitable than farming, because they require more skill, and skill commands better wages than common labor. The undertakers of new projects and pursuits must have protection at first, for "*nihil simul inventum est ac perfectum*." Losses will be incurred at first, unless legislative protection or bounties prevent it. A federal protective tariff will only make things worse. Pennsylvania has much more skill and capital engaged in iron manufacture than Virginia; she can undersell us. A protective tariff will only force Virginia to pay higher prices for Pennsylvania iron than she would have to pay, in the absence of such tariff, for English iron. Virginia must charge a heavy license for the sale of Pennsylvania iron, or pay bounties on our own manufactures. The former course is the better. *State* protection is in full *practice* at the South. It will soon be avowed as theoretically true, and take the place, even in our colleges, of the political economy of Smith and Jay, which, in effect, teaches that "anybody (negroes included) should do pretty much as anybody pleases." Many look forward in triumph to the day, when, our railroads completed to the West, and lines of direct trade with Europe established, we can send abroad all our crops and raw material, and bring back manufactured articles—to the day when we shall all become field hands, miners, and fishermen.

Without *State* protection we are in a fair way to attain this disastrous result. Centralization, aided by modern in-

provements in locomotion and intercommunication, is at work building up mighty avenues of trade, wealth, and enlightenment, in a few European and Northern cities, and impoverishing the lands, the purses, and the intellects of the rest of the world. Trade, aided by fashion, conquers faster than arms. Under our present, or rather our late system, we were becoming daily more tributary to the great European and Northern cities, for our manufactures, our fashions, and our thoughts. A great Southern University, such as that proposed in Tennessee, can only effectually stem the current of our downward course, give us a Southern Thought, a Southern Philosophy, and teach us to respect ourselves, and cease to be the copyists and imitators of our enemies. A protective, exclusive, prohibitory policy is needed by the South—but she must protect herself. The majority in Congress would protect her for their own eating. Let us encourage Southern trade, discourage Northern; for trade is a war of the wits, in which the more skilful and cunning always come off victorious. We need the products of the South, but are better off without those of the North. We shall manufacture for the far South, exchange the products of our skill for the coarser and cheaper products of their common labor, and become more enlightened and wealthy by the exchange.

You observe, Mr. Editor, that we only indulge in philosophical disquisition when it is inspired by the *genius loci* which we are describing. We now return to the thread of our discourse. The county of Essex lies in a narrow string along the south side of the Rappahannock, and is about sixty miles long and ten in width. It is part of the old (but now obsolete) county of Rappahannock, which lay on either side of the river, and was about one hundred and fifty miles long, by twenty in breadth.

It was settled chiefly by gentlemen from Middlesex, Gloucester, and Mathews, and from the James river counties, together with the servants imported by them from England. Besides this, there was an early infusion of Huguenot settlers, who gave a very moral and religious tone to society, which is still observable. Essex grand juries used to present the minutest offences, and preserved excellent order in society. The citizens of the county were much horrified at the old system of treating, by the candidates, and often, on election day, threw their votes for some one who was not a candidate, and elected him triumphantly. Among others so elected, we have understood, was James Hunter, deceased, father of our senator. He was an unambitious man, of fine abilities, and much

beloved and respected. The treating system disappeared with freehold suffrage. It was a mere act of hospitality and courtesy to knock out the head of a whiskey barrel, and invite freeholders to the fountain; but it looked like bribery to offer drink to the poor. They would resent it as an insult, and hence treating is entirely out of vogue, since universal suffrage came in. Virginians are all proud, and the poorer they get the prouder they become. Money avails nothing in elections, but caucus is king, and it is a point of honor to vote for its nominees. We shall, we fear, never have another improvised Essex election.

Many Scotch merchants settled along the river in Essex—among them the father of the distinguished editor, patriot, and Virginia gentleman, the late Thomas Ritchie. He was born and reared at Tappahannock, the residence of his father. For many years he exercised a greater influence over political opinion than any man in the nation. He was honest, zealous, and enthusiastic, yet exceedingly prudent and adroit. His political doctrines, like Mr. Jefferson's, were slightly impregnated with the loose dogmas of the French Revolutionary school. Such doctrines suited his time, when federalists were trying to engraft too much of the monarchical policy on the administration of our government, state and federal. But those French doctrines, confined within wise, prudent, and practical limits, by him and Mr. Jefferson, have been pushed to their ultimate consequences by the socialists, agrarians, and black republicans of the North, and the democrats of our day have been obliged to pull down their old flag, "The world is too much governed," and to run up the new one, "The world is too little governed." Had those statesmen lived in our day they would still have been found with the democracy.

We have often wondered whence came the Christian name Muscoe, which is very common in Essex, and the counties around it. We find a "Salvator Muscoe" among the justices of Essex in 1720, and have no doubt he left only daughters, who intermarried in various families, that have adopted Muscoe as a Christian name. Such has been the case with the name Champe. A wealthy Col. Champe, who lived on the Rappahannock, in King George county, just before the Revolution, left only one son, who died childless, and many beautiful daughters. One of them married a Willis, another Austin Brockenbrough, the celebrated tory; another, Judge Fleming; another, Samuel Washington, a brother of General Washington; another, a Carter; and another, a Taliaferro. The Christian name Champe, is now very common among these

families and their descendants. Col. Champe built Lamb's Creek Church, in King George county, and gave it to the parish.

Bishop Meade mentions a duel, fought in the front yard of Vauter's Church, in Essex, by the late Gen. Bankhead, of the United States army, and a Mr. Buckner. The general was born and reared in the village of Port Royal, and much beloved and respected by all his neighbors and acquaintances. He was the uncle of those excellent officers, Capt. George Magruder, of the navy, and Col. Jno. Magruder, of the army, both natives of Port Royal. The county of Caroline presented swords to the colonel and his uncle, General Bankhead, for distinguished services in the Mexican war. Our friend and schoolmate, Capt. Robert G. Robb, of the navy, is also a native of Port Royal. Our little village has furnished its full quota of excellent officers for the army and navy.

The Mr. Buckner, spoken of by Bishop Meade, was the late Major Collin Buckner, of the United States army also, then of Port Royal, but who subsequently removed to Western Virginia. His brother, Richard Buckner, Esq., still lives in this vicinity, enjoying full vigor of mind and body, though considerably over eighty. His son, Wm. A. Buckner, Esq., was for several years, and until he declined re-election, the delegate to the legislature from Caroline. The Buckners are a very numerous and old family. Several of them have filled, with distinction, high offices in the Western States. Although among the earliest settlers in Caroline, the family seems to have originally settled in Gloucester. Indeed, most of the first settlers hereabouts seem to have come from that county. The Taliaferros, who were the first owners of the land adjoining Port Royal, now owned by Philip and John Lightfoot, Esqs., were from that county, and also the Catletts, who are numerous in Port Royal. The first five vestrymen on a list of the vestry of Petsworth Parish, Gloucester county, are "John Buckner, Robert Lee, Thomas Royston, Philip Lightfoot, and William Thornton." This was in 1667. Branches of all these families, except the Lees, now reside in and about Port Royal. At that day there was but the Episcopal Church, and none but men of substance and respectability were made vestrymen. Bishop Meade has rendered invaluable service to state history, in exhuming those old vestry books. Then the Church was a political institution, and enforced order and morality, by adding penal inflictions to moral and religious suasion. Moral suasion is one of the veriest humbugs of the day. It is worthless without something like the Roman licitor

and his fasces behind it, to enforce its admo-
liga eam!" is your true moral suasion.
 make "well doing" a business and profess
 our day. They have abolished whipping
 navy, and rendered both inefficient; abolish
 disrepute capital punishment, and thereb
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 to prey upon honest people. They are qu
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 hardly be necessary for us to write our
 new philosophy or moral pathology. Pop
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 We have borrowed it, like all the rest of
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 institutions, and owes its birth to the se
 throw of similar institutions in Europe. V
 ern University will attend to this all-
 Slavery cannot be justified until political
"coup de grace." By-the-by, a profess
 will be indispensable at this university.
 civilized world is assailing our social or
 necessary that its defence and justification
 distinct part of liberal education. Witho
 will possess no distinctive character; it wi
 in name and locality. We like the name a
 they are but the inanimate body, into wh
 breathe a living soul.

On the opposite side of the river from
 and narrow county of Richmond. The m
 ture in the early history of this county, is
 tribe of Rappahannock or Tappahannock

names seem to have been used indifferently). In 1651, Moore Fauntleroy, who lived in Richmond or Lancaster, and was for many years a member of the House of Burgesses, purchased of the king of these Indians quite a territory of land, extending across from the Rappahannock to the Potomac. The deed is written, attested, and executed, with great formality, and provides in the *Habendum* that Fauntleroy, and his heirs and assigns, shall hold it "whilst the sun and moon endureth," with the right to "punish, correct, beat, or kill," any Indians who intrude on or molest him or them. The deed was regularly recorded in the clerk's office of the General Court. We found a certified copy of it among the papers of Mrs. Fitzhugh's grandfather, Austin Brockenbrough, who (descended from Moore Fauntleroy) owned lands included in the grant. The deed will be found, by the curious, in the appendix to Bishop Meade's "Old Churches, &c., of Virginia."

The House of Burgesses took the matter in high dudgeon; instituted several proceedings against Fauntleroy; and, finally, without a shadow of right or justice, stripped him of all the land except about five hundred acres, expelled him from the House of Burgesses, and disqualified him from holding any office, civil or military. In the eyes of common sense and common justice Fauntleroy's title was better than any the pope, King James, Lord Culpepper, or the House of Burgesses, could convey. It is obvious, from the initiatory proceedings, that the House of Burgesses recognized the right of the Indians to convey, but disputed and denied the execution of the deed and the payment of the stipulated consideration. After the deed was produced they required Fauntleroy to pay an additional consideration. This being paid, they found new cause of quarrel, and stripped him of his land and office. These final iniquitous proceedings occurred about the time of similar equally iniquitous proceedings against Colonel George Mason, John Lord, Gerard Fowke, and Captain Giles Brent. They will be found in the 2d volume, Hening's *Statutes at Large*. As we remarked, in our essay on the Brents, it was the then undue partiality to the Indians that incited them to commit many depredations and murders, and occasioned and justified the expedition of Bacon, that well nigh exterminated them. We have found an act of the House of Burgesses, passed soon after Bacon's rebellion, that fully establishes the ground we have heretofore taken, that "Bacon's original filibustering expedition against the Indians was a meritorious act, that his subsequent conduct in besieging James City and usurping the government, was treason and servile rebellion, and Bacon, a

were Spartacus, leading on for spoil and p
tionary, servile rabble ; and that Mason,
Brent, were brave, watchful, and energetic
tlemen." Bacon, like Macbeth, had amia
at one time, quit the command of his re
rendered himself to the regular authorities.
vain, ambitious, and infirm of purpose, an
his self-respect, and his life, by kindling up
bellion which, at one time, he had arrested.
leaders, who were afterward capitally pun
or no men of note, and show that the infus
was less among them than among the fel
Besides, their character is fully portrayed i
House of Burgesses, afterward improvised
proposed expedition against the Indians,
servants shall be enlisted, their masters "t
the servants *the plunder*," but that if Ba
volunteers to follow him, then all regular
dispensed with. The act of the House
after the rebellion, is highly complime
Northern Neck as well as to Giles Brent, i
people of this section joined the expedition
but laid down their arms and returned
when filibustering, with rebellious and
marched against its country. Nay, more
Neck afterward rose in a mass to put d
servile crew.

The Brent papers do not half justice to
are trying to exhume this hero of the da
Since the Reformation, History has been
logy of crime and treason, the libel on vir
and the vilification of the conservative,
great. Burke, the Virginia historian in
almost as great an adept and expert at per
the truth of history, as the shallow, eupho
Macaulay, or the strong, original, eccentric
Carlyle. Washington, good, great, and
was, did not escape the assaults of this ne
but he has survived them, as we have no
the over-anxious solicitude and fostering
the ladies, and the *Ledger*, who, to be
Parson Weems, are assiduously engaged "
candles round the sun." The act, or
which we refer, were passed, session of 1
follows :

"It is ordered that the provisions, arms, ammunition, horses, horse furniture and necessities for the Indian War, raised and sent forth by each respective county, by virtue of the acts of Assembly, made in June last, for the *first two months*, be borne and paid by each respective county, and also those northern soldiers, under the command of Col. Giles Brent, who did *only serve against the Indians* and did return to their due allegiance and obedience when Col. Brent did lay down his arms, and had promise from northern gentlemen and magistrates for their pay, be paid by their respective counties."—2d Henric, 408.

Again, at same session, page 416, provision is made to pay the soldiers who rose under Brent, to put down Bacon after he turned traitor.

"It is ordered that the charge of the rising, in the northern counties, for the suppressing of the late rebellion, be proportionately borne by the several counties in the Neck, between the Rappahannock and Potomac rivers, with the addition of the remaining people of Rappahannock county, on the south side of Rappahannock river, according to their several numbers of tythables, and that the present Burgesses, for each respective county, meet at the house of Capt. Thomas Beale, upon the second Tuesday in August next, to bring their charge and proportion the same by pole, as is usual in such cases, and according to an order of Assembly in such like cases now made, no account be allowed in that meeting but such as are plainly and fully proved upon oath, and that in place of Major Thomas Hawkins, deceased, Col. Samuel Griffin be added," &c.

Born and reared in the Northern Neck, we feel proud in undertaking to become the historiographer of this neglected county, that was the first to oppose the treason of Bacon, that was the birthplace and home of Washington, the inaugurator of our Revolution, and the cradle of liberty.

We are proud, too, of having disinterred from the rubbish of colonial times, one hero, Giles Brent; who, like some long-lost Grecian statue, grows in dimensions and in beauty of proportions, just as the oblivious earth is removed, until at length he stands forth in the broad light of day, *totus, teres et rotundus*, a chieftain fitted for the day in which he lived and acted, and worthy of his illustrious ancestry. Despite of the relentless persecution of the colonial government, he rises in favor with the people, until he becomes the leader of the whole Northern Neck, and the only defender of that government which had persecuted him, and which, at length, doles out reluctant tribute to his merit. But, while we propose to do justice to our long-lost hero, we will not, like Mr. Everett, kill him with kindness. We would not, if we could, expose his domestic life, to surfeit the reader with details of what occurs in every well-ordered family, for all men's private lives are much alike; and even Louis the Fourteenth, who *acted* majesty, and called in a thousand courtiers to see him put on his breeches, was no hero to his "valet de chambre."

We will not exhibit our chieftain to the popular gaze in any familiar or unseemly attitudes. They shall see the hero, not

the man. Wherefore, let us return to our Rappahannock Indians. This tribe appears to have been the most numerous and powerful of the Northern Neck Indians. Their territory commenced about the present dividing line between Richmond and Westmoreland counties, extending what distance down the river we cannot ascertain, and across to the Potomac. They remained on their lands until the white population had extended above them to near the head of tide-water on the Rappahannock. Surrounded by whites, they acquired some of the modes of civilized living, for we find the Assembly requiring them and Col. Fauntleroy each "to keep a hog-minder until a fence is erected between them." At one time troops are called out by the Assembly from each of the lower counties of the Neck, under the command of Col. Carter, to repel or chastise them—the magnitude of the preparations is evidence of their strength—when they removed, into what place we know not. In Mrs. Fitzhugh's family there are owned many negroes, in part descended from these Indians. We have seen some of the old ones, whose appearance strongly indicated Indian ancestry. This appearance is lost in the existing generation. The story goes, that when the tribe was departing from its old home, an Indian girl, named Hannah, fled to the whites, and was concealed by a lady in the neighborhood. She afterward married a negro, and from this marriage the negroes we have mentioned are said to be descended.

There were several other tribes of Indians in the lower Northern Neck, who were very peaceable and quiet, and retained their seats after the white population had settled around and far above them. The Wicaccinicos lived in Northumberland, near the bay, and sold their lands out to Gov. Mathews and to his heirs, about 1660, as appears from Hening. Just above them were two other tribes mentioned in the letter which we give below, from our friend and connection, George F. Brown. Mr. Brown succeeded Major Henry Lee as Consul at Algiers. His father was the late Richard Brown, a gentleman highly respected and much beloved by his numerous acquaintances; and one of his uncles, the late Gov. Brown, of Florida. He intermarried with a Miss Taliaferro, who is descended from the Tarbeilles and Corbins, and thus became possessed of Peckatone, the ancient seat of the Corbins. Corbin and Tarbeville are both Norman names, brought into England by William the Conqueror, and are both found on "the Roll of Battle Abbey." Taliaferro, or Talifer, also often occurs in early English history, and was probably brought into England on the same occasion; for the pope blessed the banner of

William, and very many Italians followed his standard. Taliaferro is an Italian name. The principal families who first settled in Virginia have generally Norman names.

Mrs. Brown is the great-niece of the late Hon. John Taliaferro, who represented the Northern Neck in Congress for nearly forty years. Never was there a better representative, a kinder-hearted man, or more elegant and accomplished gentleman. He was actively benevolent, and not only labored assiduously and successfully for his constituents, but for all who approached him and needed his services. He was no abstractionist in metaphysical philosophy, but looked rather to the promotion of material interests than to the cultivation of fine-spun theories. His doctrines, unpopular in his day, have become the prevalent practices of ours. Practice always precedes theory. We shall ere long learn the philosophy of our practices, and then the physical will dethrone the metaphysical in the philosophical world of politics, as it has already done in the practical world.

The Taliaferros seem to have removed from Gloucester to Caroline, thence to King George, and to every Southern and Southwestern State. Not one ever found his way north of Mason and Dixon's line. Being indigenous to Southern Europe, they probably would find the customs and the climate of our North too cold for them. Some still reside in Gloucester. They were formerly very wealthy and numerous in Caroline, but are now neither so wealthy nor numerous, though equally respectable.

Above the tribes spoken of in Mr. Brown's letter, we should think, about Potomac creek, resided the fierce and warlike tribes called the Potomac Indians; how many tribes, and what their numbers, no means are left, we fear, of ascertaining. The following is so much of Mr. Brown's letter as will interest the reader :

[We much regret that since writing the above, we have mislaid or lost Mr. Brown's letter. We had paged it, and, we thought, put it away with our manuscript; but in arranging that manuscript for the mail, we discover that either some one has used it to light a candle (for it was a little worn and crumpled), or we have put it away too carefully. We cannot recall the hard and long names of the two Indian tribes mentioned by Mr. Brown. They lived near the large Wicommoes tribe, in Northumberland county; for Peckatone, the seat of Mr. Brown, was purchased from the Indians, and patented by Mr. Corbin about 1651. Mr. Brown states in his letter, that Mr. Corbin had rendered essential service to Charles II., in enabling him to escape from England, and hence, after the restoration, received large grants of land from him. The anecdote of his services to Charles, he says, will be found in an article entitled *Boscobel*, which appeared in *Blackwood* a few years since. The Corbins being very wealthy and well-connected in England, as well as in America, retained probably somewhat of their attachment to the mother-country, up to the time of the Revolution.

Austin Brockenbrough, in his Diary kept during the Revolution of the name, with whom he associated in London &c. He describes him as young, accomplished, and talented. His travels, or at college in England, when the Revolution turned to America during or after the Revolution. He was able through life for his elegant manners. This was Mr. in Caroline county. This seat still belongs to his descendants thirty miles from the Rappahannock. Another branch of the family, reside on a fine estate, about twelve miles above the Rappahannock river. None of the Corbins, and very few of the old families of Virginia, were Tories. Indeed, it was they who conducted the Revolution—to be superseded and set aside *homines*," when independence was achieved. The old North presents a brilliant exception to this almost universal ostracism but gentlemen to Congress. Among them are two of Mr. Brown's friends, and connections, the Hon. Willoughby Newton, and the latter gentleman is a brother-in-law of Mr. Brown. They are among the white aborigines of the neighborhood where the letter contained his genealogy, which we valued very highly. Brown to write again.

The Scotch merchants of Virginia have generally been cold. Some of them were lukewarm, probably disaffected; but the emigrants who were born and reared in Scotland, and returned to their native land. The last body of foreign settlers in Virginia were merchants. They lived by foreign trade. War injured and destroyed them.

Under the circumstances, the lukewarmness of some of them is excusable. They took no active part against their adopted country. They came loyal, useful, conservative citizens, so soon as the war came. Scotchmen are generally conservative; and never was there a more conservative people throughout Christendom as now.

We do not recollect all the facts stated by Mr. Brown in his letter, but we are anxious to attempt to repeat them.]

The early historians of Virginia, and her writers, shed a dim and gloomy light on the subject of the rapidly perishing Indian tribes. Few of them have found their original seats. Indeed, we have found the removal of a single tribe. It seems none of them could exist permanently at the distance of a journey from an oyster bank. Great pains were used to civilize them. Many laws passed to protect the rights of the whites, and privileges granted to them in the waters included in white settlements. They learned the vices attendant on civilization without learning how to prevent or resist the temptation to slavery would have saved them. Their home was around them, and invited their attachment. They clung to his master and his home, because he was the Indian tomahawk more than the man. We reduce our frontier Indians to slavery and preserve a remnant of the race; or leave them to be exterminated by men often as lawless

as themselves? History proves incontestably that all races may be made slaves, and also that the best and most intellectual races make the best slaves. Are not Indians men, as well as the whites, the negroes, and the swarthy Asiatics?

The last we find in Virginia legislation about the Indian tribes is in 1792. In that year an act is passed and trustees appointed to enable the Nansemond Indians to sell their land. Their number had dwindled to five individuals, all "too old and infirm to support themselves by labor;" and the trustees are directed, besides paying them the annual interest of their money, to allow them five pounds each, yearly, of the principal, and to pay the balance into the treasury when the tribe became extinct. Their land consisted of only three hundred acres. A like act was passed at the same session in favor of the remnant of the Nottaway tribe, in Southampton, and also an act appointing trustees to lease out the lands of the once numerous tribe of Gingaskins, in Northampton.

We will insert an account of the Indians by the historian Beverly, who wrote in about 1725. So soon did they fade from the memories of men, that Beverly places the then extinct tribe of Rappahannock in Essex county, and the Port Tobagos in Richmond. The reverse is true. The Rappahannocks, a considerable tribe, resided, as we have shown, in Richmond county, and the Port Tobagos, in what was then Essex, now Caroline county. Their town was about five miles below Port Royal, on the tract patented in 1650 by Sir Thomas Lunsford, which afterward belonged to his descendants, the Lomax family, and is still called Port Tobago. It is one of the finest tracts in the State.

Beverly, about 1725, thus writes :

"The Indians of Virginia are almost wasted ; but such towns or people as live in bodies and retain their names, are hereinunder set down ; all which together can't raise five hundred fighting men. They live poorly, and much in fear of the neighboring Indians. Each town, by the articles of peace in 1667, pays three Indian arrows for their land, and twenty *beaver-skins* for protection.—[The *beavers* have disappeared, as well as the Indians.—REVIEWER.] In Accomac are eight towns, viz. :

"Matompkin is much decreased of late by the small-pox, that was carried thither.

"Gingoteque : The few remains of this town are joined with a nation of Maryland Indians.

"Kiequotauk is reduced to very few men.

"Matihopungo has a small number yet living.

"Oocafannoo has a small number yet living.

"Poneoteque, governed by a queen, but a small nation.

"Oanoncoe has but four or five families.

"Chiconessex has very few, who just keep the name.

"Nandudge, the seat of the empress, not above twenty families ; but she bath all the nations of this shore under tribute.

"In Northampton, Gangaseo, which is almost as numerous put together.

"In Prince George, Wyanoke is extinct.

"In Charles City, Appamettox, extinct.

"In Surrey, Nottoways, which are above a hundred bowmen and increasing people.

"By Nansemond, Meenhersing has about thirty bowmen stand.

"Nansemond, about thirty bowmen. They have increased.

"In King William county, too, Pamunky has about decreased.

"Chickahominie, which had about sixteen bowmen, but

"In Essex [should be Richmond], Rappahannock, extinct.

"In Richmond [should be Essex], Port Tobago, extinct.

"In Northumberland, Wiccommocco has but a few live in their kingdom, and retain their fashion; yet live by the trade of all other Indians, and from the English."

About or just before this was written, the Government made a treaty at Albany with the "Five Nations" Indians, by which it was stipulated should never come east of the Mountains, nor nor the Virginia Indians go west of the Mouth of Potomac. What an immense, fertile, but uninhabited intervening between these straggling tribes! a complete justification does this fact also of the appropriation of America by the whites!

The following passage from Burke derives from the recent great revival of the culture of tobacco does not inform us when the depreciation in the value of the article began. As early as 1660, stringent laws were passed to wholly prevent, for a while its culture. It was then the staple food and products of the Indians; now the true, but half-developed elements of the country. Deer abound in Western Virginia, and are often hunted, but down in the Northern Neck the elk, and the beaver, have disappeared.

"The exports of the Colony during the first thirty years were almost entirely tobacco; but soon as the price of this article fell to sixpence the pound, to twenty shillings the hundred of the people sought other sources of wealth. A trade was carried on by enterprising individuals, with the Indians at the head of their frontiers, and the roving warriors of the Six Nations, the deer, the elk, and the buffalo, together with the furs of the fox, the muskrat, and the beaver, were procured in exchange for blankets, etc.

"These people, partly cured of their rage for making money, turned their attention to the more useful and Indian corn; and were in a short time able to raise sufficient for the home consumption. The surplus was exported, and was either disposed of to the traders of New York, and New-England, or directly with the mother-country. Some of the individuals had even induced them to carry on a trade

Canada. *Quid non mortalia pectora tentas?* The ardor and adventurous spirit of the colonists, even so early as 1682, may be collected from an order of council forbidding any boat, under ten tons and a flush deck, fitting with grating or tarpaulin, to trade with Canada."

The Col. Carter, whom we have mentioned as the leader, appointed to command the forces of the lower Northern Neck, in the expedition against the Rappahannocks, was the ancestor of the Carters of Sabine Hall, in Richmond county. He, and several of his descendants, enjoyed high trusts and offices under the colonial government. The family were wealthy before their emigration to this country, and have continued so ever since. They are much connected with the old and wealthy families of the Tayloes and Wormleys. The Wormleys were very wealthy and distinguished in colonial times. They are now few in number, less wealthy, but fully sustaining their social position. One of their spacious old family seats, Rosegill, stands, in good repair, just below Urbanna, on the banks of the Rappahannock. Mount Airy, in Richmond county, the old family seat of the Tayloes, is one of the finest relics of colonial times. These three families have been choice and fortunate in their intermarriages, and are connected with much of the wealth and respectability of Maryland and Virginia. Wealthy, well educated, and refined, they have, nevertheless, been at all times actively public spirited. We never heard of a "let alone," "every man for himself" politician among them. They love their neighbors, their State and country, and do not shut themselves up like turtles in their shells, and leave society to take care of itself. They neither profess nor practise the selfish Scotch "*Laissez-faire*" philosophy. Would that their example was more generally followed?

Bishop Meade gives very interesting accounts of these three families, and to him we refer the reader.

We have had frequent occasion to introduce into our articles the name, Thornton, and in a previous number inserted an account, or short history, of one branch of the family, furnished up by that distinguished jurist and law writer, the Hon. Jno. Tayloe Lomax. The family, we are informed, are descended from three brothers, who immigrated from England, soon after the first settlement in the colony. We presume they first settled in Gloucester, and soon spread throughout the Northern Neck, and the Rappahannock and Mattaponi valleys. They are now to be found in most of the Southern and Western States. Many of them are wealthy, and all, we believe, gentlemen.

We do not know that we can better conclude round off our description and history of the ley, than by giving lists of the early justices of the lower counties, at or near the mouth of indebted to Bishop Meade's work for these counties are the hives, whence have issued a great part of the respectable population of the South and will find that the descendants of the name have retained their social position. It is a fact that in our new country many families rise and fall. In old countries, where all places are only rise in life by pulling others down—themselves.

List of vestrymen in Petworth Parish, beginning in 1679, and extending (we think) to 1740:

Buckner, Lee, Royston, Lightfoot, Thomas, Ascough, Throokmorton, Hansford, Ramey, Greene, Carter; Roan, Cobb, Porteus, Evans, Wyatt, Yeardley, Smith, Stignor, Cook, Alexander, Dodsley, Upshaw, Pratt, Willis, Booth, Bayley, Stubbs, Read, Wainwright.

The late distinguished jurist, Jno. R. Orlean, was a descendant or relative of the name mentioned in this list, and Mr. Seaton, of the name, a relative of the Seaton also mentioned, was born in King William, an adjoining family seat of the Seaton. The family name, The Washington mentioned, was a relative of the name.

Names of the Vestrymen, Kingston Parish, beginning in 1667:

Dudley, Ransom, Hill, Knowles, Burdett, Billop, Tompkins, Jones, Coot, Roberts, Eardley, Debrum, Marlow, Joye, Tabb, Read, Blacknal, Hughes, Willis, Custis, Lewis, Cary, Booker, Dean, Smith, Willoughby, Bibber, and Glasscock.

Early vestrymen of Middlesex:

Corbin, Perrott, Chewning, Potter, Vane, Cock, Curtis, Smith, Dudley, Thacher, Wormley, Jones, Miller, Scarborough, Woodin, Warwick, Gordon, Chichester, Midham, Kemp, Price, Mann, Seager, Callender, Walker, Hardin, Reid, Montague, Nelson

Bishop Meade remarks that the old English aristocracy is apparent on the vestry books of this county. He alludes to other lists, as well as to the above.

The Bishop furnishes no list of vestrymen for Essex, but gives a list of justices of the peace, from which we take the names, from 1680 to 1720 :

Aubrey, Smith, Taylor, Harrison, Stone, Griffin, Robinson, Loyd, Bloomfield, Fauntleroy, Peachy, Soughter, Jones, Williamson, Caslett, Moseley, Brocky, Taliaferro, Battaile, Gaines, Baughan, Gaulman, Covington, Tomlin, Thrasher, Dobyns, Coleman, Meriwether, Lomax, Dangerfield, Micou, Robinson, Waring, Thornton, Fry, &c., &c.

The names on the old vestry list of Lancaster are lost. The following is from 1739 to 1756 :

Bertrand, Ball, Heale, Chinn, Shearman, Chichester, Mitchell, Carter, Lawson, Edwards, Steptoe, Martin, Tayloe, Conway, Pinkard, Bent, Towles, Payne, Kiok, Fleet, Ewell, McCarty, Dymmer, Griffin, Montague, Newby, Sydnor, Berryman, Brent, Chewing.

The Balls were of the family of Washington's mother. One of them, from Lancaster, represented in Congress the Northern Neck district. Also a Mr. Chinn, of the above-named Chinn family. He was a gentleman of much worth, and of very promising talents. He died young. Col. Jno. Tayloe, now deceased, also represented the same district. He afterward removed to Washington. The Conways, a numerous and highly respectable family, in various parts of Virginia, are all descended from the Lancaster stock.

Bishop Meade gives the following list of old families in Richmond, few of whose names are now to be found in that county :

Stone, Glasscock, Deane, Doniphan, Colston, Thornton, Travis, Peachy, Tayloe, Conway, Brookenbrough, Gwin, Tarpoy, Downman, Slaughter, Parker, Sherlock, Davis, Robinson, Beale, Smith, Woodbridge, Heale, Barrow, Taliaferro, Ingo, Bellfield, Tomlin, Grymes, Metcalf, Fitzhugh, Newton, Barnes, Sydnor, Jordan, Hornby, Hamilton, Carter, Mountjoy, Flood, Plummer, and Beckwith. To these should be added Spicer, an extinct name, once connected with the Brockenbroughs.

The Hon. R. L. T. Beale, is of the Beale family mentioned in this list.

In our next we shall begin at Northumberland county, and give, as far as we can, an account of the Potomac valley, as well on the Maryland as Virginia side.

ART. II.—THE AFRICAN EL DORADO

HOW THE AFRICANS LIVE AT H

"It is remarkable what a difference there is between ba-Haushe and the Kanuri—the former lively, spirits latter melancholic, dejected, and brutal; and the same their physiognomies—the former having, in general, very features, and more graceful forms, while the Kanuri, wide nostrils, and his large bones, makes a far less agreeably the women, who are very plain, and certainly in Negroland, *notwithstanding their coquetry*, in which they Hausa women."[†]

"Abde Rahman was a good soldier, but a man of very meter. When a youth he had committed all sorts of *carrying off young brides by force to indulge his passions*; little intelligence."[‡]

He was a young nobleman, or the son of

"Mohammed el Beshir, the vizier, seems to have made governmental policy, his covetousness blinding him to his for covetous he certainly was—first from the love of order to indulge his luxurious disposition, for he was muma, that is to say, extremely fond of the fair (?)s from three to four hundred female slaves. In assembling of female companions for the entertainment of his leisure scientific principle; in fact, a credulous person might see his harem from a scientific point of view, as a sort of doubtless of a peculiarly interesting kind, which he in order to impress upon his memory the distinguishing I have often observed that, in speaking with him in Negroland, he was at times struck with the novelty of he had not yet had a specimen of that tribe in his harem once to his servants to endeavor to procure a perfect kind. I remember also, that on showing to him, one of logical work, in which he took a lively interest, an picture of a Circassian female, he told me, with an expression of satisfaction, that he had a living specimen of that kind: laws of Mohammedan etiquette, I was so indiscreet as was as handsome as the picture, he answered only with ing and pardoning my indiscreet question. I must admit the great number and variety of the women who seemed to take a hearty interest in each of them; at grieved most sincerely for the loss of one who died in Haj Beshir! He was put to death in the last month three sons alive, not counting the daughters, and the may be supposed to die in such an establishment with

"There is a great difference of character between I have said above, the Bornu people are by temper than those of Kano. The women, in general, are much short figures, large heads, and broad noses, with im still more by the enormity of a red bead or coral worn less, they are *certainly quite as coquettish*, and as observe, at least as wanton, also, as the more sprightly

* Continued from last month, in review of Livingstone, J

† Barth, vol. i., pp. 535, 536. ‡ Barth, vol. ii., p. 41.

never seen a Hausa woman strolling about the streets with her gown trailing after her on the ground, the fashion of the women of Kukawa, and wearing on her shoulders some Manchester print of a showy pattern, keeping the ends of it in her hands, while she throws her arms about in a coquettish manner. In a word, their dress, as well as their demeanor, is far more decent and agreeable. The best part in the dress or ornaments of the Bornu women is the silver ornament which they wear on the back of the head, and which, in taller figures, when the hair is plaited in the form of a helmet, is very becoming; but it is not every woman who can afford such an ornament, and *many a one sacrifices her better interests for this decoration.*"*

"As for their dress, however, I almost suspected that, though very scanty, it was put on only for the occasion; for, on arriving at the first cluster of huts, we came abruptly upon a hollow with a pond of water, from which darted forth a very tall and stout bronze-colored woman, *totally naked*, with her pitcher upon her head, not only to my own amazement, but even to that of my horse, which, coming from the civilized country of Bornu, which is likewise the seat of the blackest races in the interior, seemed to be startled by such a sight. However, I have observed that many of those simple tribes deem some sort of covering, however scanty it may be, *more essential for the man than the woman.*"†

"The chief of the pagans of the Bagele, who belong to the Batta tribe, in the height of his power exercised paramount authority over the neighboring tribes, and is said to have even had the '*jus prima noctis.*'"‡

"The most handsome among the female slaves who composed part of the spoil that was to be taken to the vizier by his officer, Haj Abbas, had made her escape during the night; they eagerly searched from dawn of day but could not find her. At length they discovered her necklace and clothes, and the remains of her bones—evident proofs that she had fallen a prey to the wild beasts. She belonged to the Yeddina, and was represented as having been possessed of considerable charms; and it was supposed that her loss would affect the vizier greatly, who, as I have before observed, was rather fond of an ethnological variety of female beauty. There was a great deal of unpleasant conversation about this affair, the girl not yet having been delivered up to Haj Abbas when she made her escape."§

"Of female slaves on horseback and led horses, the vizier had with him the moderate number of eight of each kind, while the sheikh had twelve: but this appeared to me a small number when I afterward saw the King of Bagirmi returning from the expedition with a string of forty-five mounted female partners. These black damsels were all clothed in white woollen burnuses, with their faces completely veiled, and were closely watched."¶

The scenes now passing in review took place in pure "Negro-land," as Dr. Barth is pleased to call it, in order to distinguish it from those sections where there is a mingling of races.

"Adishen, the Muagn chief, was, in a certain degree, subject to the rulers of Bornu. The scout or spy who had been sent, by the vizier, to Adishen with a message; upon his return, while describing to the vizier his reception at the court of the chief Adishen, he, the spy, indulged in a lively description of the customs prevalent among these people, whose chief had only outwardly adopted Islam. 'His majesty,' he said, '*used to indulge in amorous intercourse with his female slaves, of whom he had two hundred, before the eyes of his people; an account which was rather confirmed by Kashella Belal, who had been his guest several times. Belal also stated that this little prince was not jealous of the favors bestowed by his female partners upon his guests, but, on the contrary, that he himself voluntarily gave them up to them. Such a degrading custom may, indeed, be followed by this petty chief, as they regard the relation of the sexes in a simpler point of view than we do.*'"

* Barth, vol. II., p. 59.
‡ Barth, vol. II., p. 280.

† Barth, vol. II., p. 111.
§ Barth, vol. II., p. 346.

‡ Barth, vol. II., p. 175, foot note.
¶ Barth, vol. II., p. 347.

"On this occasion, the banga led in his triumphant chiefs, among whom that of Gogomi was the most conspicuous ornament of the triumph, being not less remarkable figure than on account of his having been the ruler of the state, with a capital in an almost inaccessible position. of the savage and witty Bagirmi people, by submitting with humor to his fate, which was certainly not very enviable this country *either to kill or to emascuate* these princely conducted them for some time through all the courtyards allowing the wives and female slaves of the Sultan to and *uncanton dispositions* in all sorts of fun with them. castration is, perhaps, in no country of Central Africa to extent as in Bagirmi."*

"Altogether, Othman Bugoman appears to have been did not scruple to plunder either strangers or his own little about any laws, human or divine, that it is *er married his own daughter*; according to others, he *married seems that some attribute similar crimes to his father.*"†

Having quoted thus freely from Dr. Barth, I make a few selections from Dr. Livingstone's subject, although he is not so candid in this as

"Sebitnane installed his daughter, Maniochisane, into before his death; but, with all his acuteness, the idea of who should not be her lord, did not seem to enter his make her his successor, probably in imitation of some whom he had come into contact; but being of the Beel look upon the husband except as the woman's lord; *were hers—she might take any one, but ought to keep none she might do with the men what he could do with the women*

"The natives, during the period of greatest heat, keep always pleasantly cool by day, but close and sulcatir are able to afford it, sit guzzling beer or boyaloa. The on these occasions, keep up a continuous roar of banter and swearing. The dance is kept up in the moonlight women stand clapping their hands continuously, and then and say, *'It is really very fine.'*"‡

"The women clothe themselves better than the Bal *puris naturalibus*. They walk about without the smalls have even lost the tradition of the fig leaf." I asked a man if he did not think it would be better to adopt a li with a pitying leer, and laughed with surprise at my cent; he evidently considered himself above such with them that on my return I should have my family with come near us in that state. "What shall we put on? It was considered a good joke when I told them that, they must put on a bunch of grass."§

"They grease their bodies with the oil of the Palms table oils, but are especially fond of butter and tallow. kondo's old wife politely requested to be anointed with as much as would suffice; and, as they have little believe that she felt her comfort greatly enhanced the who was also present, was equally anxious for butter. iron rings on her ankles, to which were attached little enable her to make a tinkling as she walked in her mien

"Manenko was a tall strapping woman, about twenty

* Barth, vol. ii., p. 523.

† Livingstone, p. 547.

‡ Barth, vol. ii., p. 554.

§ Livingstone, p. 590.

fusion of ornaments and medicines (charms) hung around her body. Her body was smeared all over with a mixture of fat and red ochre, as a protection against the weather; a necessary precaution, for, like most of the Balonda ladies, she was otherwise in a frightful state of *nudity*. This was not from want of clothing; for, being herself a chief, she might have been as well clad as any of her subjects; but from her peculiar ideas of *elegance in dress*.^{*}

"My men got pretty well supplied individually, for they went into the village and commenced dancing. The young women were especially pleased with the new steps they had to show, and would say, 'Dance for me, and I will grind corn for you.'[†]

It will be borne in mind by the reader, that, in Livingstone's book, he speaks more of the tribes in the middle portions of Africa, or those of whom less is known, than he does of those near the coast. His book is made up mostly of his travels in those remote places, and what he saw in his route.

Having made so many quotations and extracts from the volumes, we fear the reader will become weary of reading, but let him be assured that there is no diminution of interest or entertainment in the following portions. We now proceed to lay before him evidences of tyranny, oppression, wrong, injustice, &c., either for purposes of revenge, retaliation, or acquisition of property in articles of merchandise or slaves.

"As we were the very first white men the inhabitants had ever seen, we were visited by prodigious numbers. Among the first who came to see us was a gentleman who appeared in a gaudy dressing-gown of printed calico. Many of the Makololo, besides, had garments of blue, green and red baize, and also of printed cottons; on inquiry we learned that these had been purchased, in exchange for boys, from a tribe called Mambari, which is situated near Bihe."

"The Makololo on a former occasion had exchanged eight boys for as many old guns; these were not their own children, but captives of the black races they had conquered. They were afterward incited to make a foray against some tribes to the eastward; the Mambari bargaining to use their guns in the attack for the captives they might take, and the Makololo were to have all the cattle. They went off with at least two hundred slaves that year. During this foray the Makololo met some Arabs from Zanzibar, who presented them with three English muskets, and in return, received about thirty of their captives."[‡]

"The Boers know from experience that adult captives may as well be left alone, for escape is so easy in a wild country that no fugitive-slave-law can come into operation; they therefore adopt the system of seizing only the youngest children, in order that these may forget their parents and remain in perpetual bondage. I have seen mere infants in their houses repeatedly."[§]

This is incontestable proof that they have slaves and steal or purchase slaves to use *there*, and *not* to sell to foreigners, because they could easily keep the adults confined until they are secured on shipboard.

"The families of the Makololo nation are spread over the country, one or two only in each village, as the lords of the land. They all have lordship over great numbers of subjected tribes, who pass by the general name of Makalaka, and who are forced to render certain services and to aid in tilling the soil; but each

* Livingstone, p. 298.

† Livingstone, p. 633.

‡ Livingstone, pp. 108, 109.

§ Livingstone, p. 141.

has his own land under cultivation, and otherwise lives nearly independent. This species of servitude may be termed serfdom, as it has to be rendered in consequence of subjection by force of arms. Some masters, who fail from defect of temper or disposition to secure the affections of the conquered people, frequently find themselves left without a single servant, in consequence of the absence and impossibility of enforcing a fugitive-slave-law.*

"During a flight in former years, when the present chief Sekomi was a child in his mother's arms, the Bamangwato men were separated from their women, and inveigled on to an island by the chief of the Myria, on pretence of ferrying them across the river Lecaumbye. *They were left to perish*, after seeing their wives taken prisoners by these cruel lords of the Lecaumbye."†

"We were informed by some captives that Masico (a chief) was in the habit of seizing all orphans, and those who have no powerful friend in the tribe whose protection they can claim, and selling them for clothing to the Mambari."‡

"Offences of the slightest character among the poor are made the pretext for selling them or their children to the Mambari. A young man of Lobale had fled into the country of Shinte, and located himself, without showing himself, to the chief. This was considered an offence sufficient to warrant his being seized and offered for sale while we were there."—"We were particularly struck, in passing through the village, with the punctiliousness of manners shown by the Balonda. The inferiors, on meeting their superiors in the street, at once drop down on their knees and rub dust on their arms and chest; they continue the salutation of clapping the hands until the great ones have passed. Sambanza knelt down in this manner until the son of Shinte had passed him. We several times saw the woman who occupies the office of drawer of water for Shinte; she rings a bell as she passes along, to give warning to all to keep out of her way; it would be a grave offence for any one to come near her, and exercise by his presence an evil influence on the drink of the chief."§

"Matiamvo is said to have sometimes indulged the whim of running a neck in the town and *beheading whomsoever he met*, until he had quite a heap of human heads. He explained this conduct by saying that his people were too many and he wanted to diminish them. He had absolute power of life and death. We were informed that *human sacrifices* were occasionally made, and that a *man was slaughtered* for the sake of obtaining some part of his body when certain charms were needed by the chief."||

"When a chief dies, a number of *servants are slaughtered* with him to form his company in the other world. The Barotse follow the same custom, and this and other usages show them to be genuine negroes, though neither they nor the Balonda resemble closely the typical form of that people. As we go north, the people become more bloodily superstitious. We were assured that if the late chief Matiamvo took a fancy to anything, such, for instance, as my watch-chain, which was of silver wire, and was a great curiosity, as they had never seen metal plaited before, he would order a whole village to be brought up to buy it from a stranger. When a slave-trader visited him, he took possession of all his goods; then after ten days or a fortnight, he would send out a party of men to pounce upon some considerable village, and having killed the head man, would pay for all the goods by selling the inhabitants. *This has frequently been the case*, and nearly all the visitants he ever had were men of colour."¶

"Among the Bangakas a chief's brother inherits in preference to his son. The sons of a sister belong to her brother; and *he often sells his nephews* to pay his debts. By this and other unnatural customs, more than by war, is the slave-market supplied."**

"One of the Pombeiros had eight good-looking women in a chain whom he was taking to the country of Matiamvo to sell for ivory. I believe they were captives taken from the rebel Cas-angos. The way in which slaves are spoken of in Angola and Eastern Africa must sound strangely even to the owners when

* Livingstone, p. 204.

† Livingstone, p. 251.

‡ Livingstone, p. 281.

§ Livingstone, p. 229.

|| Livingstone, p. 471.

¶ Livingstone, p. 311.

** Livingstone, p. 342.

they first come from Europe. In Angola the common appellation is, 'O diabo,' or 'brutu;' and it is quite usual to hear gentlemen call out, 'O diabo! bring fire.' In Eastern Africa they apply the term 'bicho' (an animal), and you hear the phrase, 'Call the animal to do this or that.' In fact, slave-owners come to regard their slaves as not human, and will curse them as 'the race of a dog.'"

"We had now an opportunity of hearing a case brought before Kawawa for judgment. A poor man and his wife were accused of having bewitched the man whose wake was now held in the village. Before Kawawa even heard the defence, he said, 'You have killed one of my children; bring all yours before me, that I may choose which of them shall be mine instead.' The wife eloquently defended herself, but this availed little, for these accusations are the means resorted to by some chiefs to secure subjects for the slave-market."

"On the northern side of the island I found the kotla (public place, or forum) of the elder Sekote, garnished with numbers of human skulls mounted on poles. 'At the village Mogara a number of stakes are planted in the ground, and I counted fifty-four human skulls hung on their points. These were Matebele who, being overtaken by Mogara's father in a sick and famishing condition, he put them all to death, and mounted their heads in the Batoka fashion. He was evidently proud of these trophies of his father's ferocity, and I was assured by other Batoka that few strangers ever returned from a visit to this quarter. If a man wished to curry favor with a Batoka chief, he ascertained when a stranger was about to leave, and waylaid him at a distance from the town; and when he brought the head back to the chief, it was mounted as a trophy, the different chiefs vying with each other as to which should mount the greatest number of skulls in his village.'"

"During the time I resided at Mabotsa, a woman came to the station with a fine boy, an Albino. The father had ordered her to throw him away, but she clung to her offspring many years. In the course of time, however, she became tired of living apart from the father, who refused to have her while she retained the son. She took him out one day and killed him close to the village of Mabotsa, and nothing was done to her by the authorities. From having met with no Albinos in Londa, I suspect they are there also put to death. The general absence of deformed persons is partly owing to their destruction in infancy, and partly to their mode of life. A child who cut the upper front teeth before the under was always put to death. In some tribes a case of twins renders one of them liable to death."

Other superstitions could here be quoted, but it is deemed useless. We now give a summary view of heathenism by Dr. Livingstone, and, leaving him, turn to the volumes of Dr. Barth.

"I had been, during a nine weeks' tour, in closer contact with heathenism than I had ever been before; and though all, including the chief, were as kind and attentive to me as possible, and there was no want of food, yet to endure the dancing, roaring and singing, the jesting, anecdotes, grumbling, quarrelling, and murdering of these children of nature, seemed more like a severe penance than anything I had before met with in the course of my missionary duties. I took thence a more intense disgust at heathenism than I had before."

"Mohammed, the liberated Tunisian slave, was at times a most insolent rascal; we were pestered by the Kelowi and Utacti, and I got into a violent quarrel with Farrugi, the shameless freed-slave of Lusu. I was obliged to be cautious, as there was a great deal of excitement and irritation in the caravan, and from what had previously taken place all the way from Murzuk, every one regarded us as the general purveyors, and cherished the ardent hope that at

* Livingstone, p. 484. † Livingstone, p. 503. ‡ Livingstone, pp. 556, 569.
§ Livingstone, pp. 617, 618. ¶ Livingstone, p. 246.

last it would be his good fortune, individually, to get possession of our property."²

"Our encampment was by no means a quiet one, and it was apparent that a serious difficulty was impending. Mohammed Boro, who had so often given vent to his feelings of revenge, was all fire and fury, and was stirring up the whole encampment, and I knew the motives which actuated him. A few evenings after we were informed that we were threatened with great danger, as the Hogar were authorized to collect people in the territory of the Kelowi, and then to despatch us in such a way that not even a trace of us should be found."³

"It was one of the defects of the expedition that our merchandise, instead of comprising a few valuable things, was, for the most part, composed of worthless, bulky objects, and that it made all the people believe that we were carrying with us enormous wealth, while the whole value of our things scarcely amounted to one thousand dollars. We had, besides, about ten large iron cases filled with dry biscuit, but which all the ignorant people believed to be crammed with money; and we were greatly obliged to Sfaski, who dashed to pieces one of the iron cases, when, to the astonishment of the simple people, instead of heaps of dollars, a dry and tasteless sort of bread came forth from the strong enclosure."⁴

"There can scarcely be the least doubt that these valleys, which were expressly left to the care of the degraded tribes of the Ingbad, on condition of their paying from the produce a certain tribute to *their masters*, once presented a very different aspect; but when the power of the ruler of Agades dwindled away to a shadow, and when the Ingbad ceased to fear him, *preferring robbery and peace* to the cultivation of the ground, these fine valleys were left to themselves, and relapsed into a wilderness."

This is very much on a par with Hayti, Jamaica, etc.

The following transaction, showing the insolence of the people, and as a specimen of many humiliating trials to which Dr. Barth was subjected, will give an idea of his long suffering and patient endurance:

"Mohammed the Foolish succeeded in the evening in getting me into some trouble, which gave him great delight; for seeing that I took more than common interest in a national dance, accompanied with a song, which was going on at some distance from our house, he assured me that Hamma was there, and had told him that I might join in their amusement. Unfortunately, I was too easily induced; and, hanging only a cutlass over my shoulder, I went thither unaccompanied, sure of finding my protector in the merry crowd. It was about ten o'clock at night, the moon shining very brightly on the scene. Having first viewed it from some distance, I approached very near, in order to observe the motions of the dancers. Four young men, placed opposite to each other in pairs, were dancing with warlike motions, and, stamping the ground violently with the left foot, turned round in a circle, the motions being accompanied by the energetic clapping of hands of a numerous ring of spectators. It was a very interesting sight, and I should have liked to stay longer; but finding that Hamma was not there, and that all the people were young, and many of them buzawe, I followed the advice of Abdu, one of Annur's slaves, who was among the crowd, to withdraw as soon as possible. I had, however, retraced my steps but a short way, when, with the war-cry of Islam, and drawing their swords, all the young men rushed after me. Being, however, a short distance in advance, and fortunately not meeting with any one in the narrow street, I reached our house without being obliged to make use of my weapon; but my friends the Kelowi, seeing me in trouble, had thrown the chain over the door of our house, and, with a malicious laugh, left me outside with my pursuers, so that I was obliged to draw my cutlass in order to keep them at bay—though, if they had

² Barth, vol. i., p. 233.

³ Barth, vol. i., p. 235.

⁴ Barth, vol. i., p. 313.

⁵ Barth, vol. i., pp. 261, 262.

made a serious attack, I should have fared ill enough, with my short, blunt European weapon against their long sharp swords. I was rather angry with my barbarous companions, particularly with Mohammed; and when, after a little delay, they opened the door, I loaded my pistol, and threatened to shoot the first man that troubled me."*

"It was on this occasion that I learned that the mighty king of Agades had not only a common prison, wherein he might confine the most haughty chiefs, but that he even exercised over them *the power of life and death*, and that he dispensed the favors of a terrible dungeon, bristling with swords and spears standing upright, upon which he was authorized to throw any distinguished malefactor. These statements were confirmed to me by the old chief Annur."†

"Not so pleasant to me, though not without interest, was the visit of another great man, Belroji. He was still in his prime; but my Keloui (who were always wrangling like children) got up a desperate fight with him in my very room, which was soon filled with clouds of dust, and the young Sliman entering during the row, and joining in it, it became really frightful. The Keloui were just like children; when they went out they never failed to put on all their finery, which they threw off as soon as they came within doors, resuming their old dirty clothes."‡

"The next day, the wife of Eliyas came to tell us that a band of robbers had suddenly fallen upon Tintaghode, and had carried off two large droves of camels, and all the movable property. Such is the state of this country, when the chiefs, instead of punishing systematically the rebels and marauders, regard such instances of crime only as opportunities for enriching themselves with plunder."§

"The king or paramount chief of Tasawa has the power of life and death, and there is no appeal from his sentence. The territory of Tasawa might constitute a very happy community if the inhabitants were not harassed continually by predatory expeditions; and even last evening, while we were encamped here, the Fellani drove away a small herd of ten calves from the village of Kalbo."||

"We had advanced but a short distance, when a man came running after us, bringing us the exciting news that a party of Tawarek had fallen upon the two Arabs, and after wounding the elder of them, who had made some resistance, had carried off all their camels but three. I expressed my surprise to my horseman that such a thing could happen on the territory of the Governor of Kano, and urged him to collect some people of the neighboring villages, in order to rescue the property, which might have easily been done; but he was quite indifferent, and smiling in his self-conceit, and pulling his little straw hat on one side of his head, he went on before us. Small villages belonging to the district of Zakara were on each side, the inhabitants indulging still in security and happiness. The following year they were plunged into an abyss of misery—Bokhari making a sudden inroad on a market day, and carrying off as many as a thousand persons."¶

"Predatory incursions are nothing new in these quarters, where several provinces and entirely distinct empires have a common frontier; but this, as the event proved, was rather a memorable campaign for the whole of this part of Negroland, and was to become 'the beginning of sorrows,' for all the country around; for Bokhari, having taken the strong town of Kadeja and killed his brother, was not only able to defend himself in his new position, vanquishing all the armies sent against him, and among them the whole military force of the empire of Sokoto, which was led on by the vizier Abdu in person, but spread terror and devastation to the very gates of Kano. Indeed, on my second journey through these regions, I shall have the sad duty of describing the state of misery into which districts, which on my former visit I had found flourishing and populous, had been reduced by this warlike chieftain, who, instead of founding a strong kingdom and showing himself a great prince, chose rather, like most of his countrymen, to base his power on the destruction and devastation

* Barth, vol. i., p. 332.
 ‡ Barth, vol. i., p. 333.

† Barth, vol. i., p. 336.
 § Barth, vol. i., p. 435.

‡ Barth, vol. i., p. 344.
 ¶ Barth, vol. i., p. 532.

of the country around him and to make himself a slave-dealer. Tens of thousands of unfortunate people, pagans as well as protected in their well-being by their lazy and effeminate hands of Bokhari passed into those of the slave-dealer, & away from their native home into distant regions."*

"Indeed, between all these towns there was scarcely a kept up by the natives themselves; they were in cor caught and sold into slavery."†

"The state of this country is very miserable indeed, all around, as soon as they have any debts to pay, and excursion, and often selling even their own subjects."‡

"But at present all this district, the finest land of Bornu of the word, which once resounded with the voices and towns and villages, has become one impenetrable jungle elephant and the lion, and with no human inhabitants except herdsmen and cattle-breeders, who are exposed every now inroads of the Tawarek. This condition of the finest part disgrace to its present rulers, who have nothing to do but few hundreds of their lazy slaves, and establish them whereupon the natives would immediately gather around fine country from an impenetrable jungle into rich field grain, but also immense quantities of cotton and indigo."

"The Tawarek in general are not very fond of serious try to carry off a good booty in slaves or cattle by surprise already done a great deal for the security and welfare of resides, the population of which is intermixed with Tebe be trusted. Feeling deeply the disgraceful state of this Bornu, I afterward advised the vizier to build watch-Komdugu, which would make it easy to keep off the predatory tribes, and, in consequence, the whole count secure abode of a numerous population; but even the be cares more for the silver ornaments of his numerous wives his people."§

"He was very well aware of the misery connected with on his pilgrimage to Mekka, in the mountainous region of in one night, forty of his slaves by the extreme cold!"¶

"We had a good specimen to-day of the set of robbers associated with in order to carry out the objects of the caravan arrived from Kanem, they were a feeble, harmless little besides dates upon a few oxen; but as soon as they our companions, after holding a council, fell upon the part them of the little they had."**

"But all these abodes of human happiness were des having accomplished these deeds we returned to our companions proceeded to the partition and distribution acquired; and the proceeding was accompanied by terrible scenes, caused by the number of young children and even be distributed, many of these poor creatures being mere their mothers never to see them again. There were scenes."††

"The thievish propensities of the people of Logon are the first intimation which I received of it was an official beware of the slaves of my house."‡‡

Besides the above quotations, there are where he was pestered with thieves, robbers of bad faith, treachery, and threats of violence.

* Barth, vol. i., p. 544.

† Barth, vol. i., p. 577.

** Barth, vol. ii., p. 236.

† Barth, vol. i., p. 551.

‡ Barth, vol. i., p. 584.

†† Barth, vol. ii., p. 396.

‡ Barth

§ Barth

¶ Barth

servants, his guides, or the persons with whom he occasionally travelled.

We have seen in an extract above, that a slave was sold for an old gun, worth now comparatively nothing, or say three or four dollars. On page 540 of the second volume, he states that he saw them sold for six or seven Spanish dollars. On page 206 of the same volume, he mentions a trade made by two chiefs, where one gave *twenty slaves for one horse*. A camel sells, according to age and qualities, for from eight to twenty dollars. In Bornu, horses are worth from six to thirty dollars; but imported animals will bring as much as three hundred dollars. In Adamawa, many individuals, not chiefs, owned over a thousand slaves. In Fumbina, slaves sell for about a dollar a piece, or not as much as one elephant's tooth:

"Slavery exists on an immense scale in this country, and there are many private individuals who have more than a thousand slaves. In this respect, the governor of the whole province is not the most powerful man, being outstripped by the governors of Chamba and Koncha; for this reason, that Mohammed Lowel has all his slaves settled in slave villages, where they cultivate grain for him, while the above-mentioned officers, who obtain all their provision in corn from subjected pagan tribes, have their whole host of slaves constantly at their disposal; and I have been assured that some of the head slaves of these men have as many as a thousand slaves each under their command, with whom they undertake occasional expeditions for their masters. I have been assured also that Mohammed Lowel receives every year, in *tribute*, besides horses and cattle, *about five thousand slaves*."*

Having thus shown that slaves are so very cheap, we now proceed to show that they are used as *plow animals* in their native Africa! On page 311, volume second, he says: "On our return, I saw in the valley of Auderas a barbarous mode of tillage—THREE SLAVES BEING YOKED TO A SORT OF PLOW, AND DRIVEN LIKE OXEN BY THEIR MASTER!"

But, as a sample of Dr. Barth's prejudice, and to show how his heart, his mind, and all his nature, are warped by false information and base slander, we give the following:

"Indeed every candid person, however opposed to slavery he may be, must acknowledge that the Tawarek in general, and particularly the Kelowi, treat their slaves not only humanely, but even with the utmost indulgence and affability, and scarcely let them feel their bondage at all. Of course, there are exceptions, as the cruelty of yoking slaves to a plow, and driving them on with a whip, which is scarcely surpassed in any of the *Christian slave States*!"†

Circumstances compelled him to accompany an army of Bornu, in an expedition into the Musga and other regions around and adjacent to the Lake Tsad, which he was extremely anxious to see and explore. This army was sent out for the

* Barth, vol. II., p. 191.

† Barth, vol. I., p. 439.

purpose of securing slaves, and subjugating the and villages in that section. His description rapine, devastation, and bloodshed, is truly ! ten thousand captives were taken and made the grown men were inhumanly slaughtered. When they captured men, a common practice *one leg, and suffer them to bleed to death !*

"By far the largest portion of the captives were women were some women so decrepit that they were scarcely able tons, who, in their almost total nakedness, presented a horrible

These scenes were enacted by one African pense of neighboring tribes, without any just any provocation, but merely for the purpose plunder.

Our purpose was to show, by free quotations before us, that Africans are in a far worse state their own country, than the negroes here in States. There is no security there of life or limb of to-day, the master of to-day, owning his may be a slave to-morrow, or may be murdered. Subjects are led into captivity. For the reader's comment is unnecessary.

ART. III.—SQUATTER SOVEREIGNTY

MR. DOUGLAS ON SQUATTER SOVEREIGNTY, CONSIDERED IN AN AMICABLE WAY.

WHAT Mr. Douglas does, and what he says made up the staple of much of Southern talk prominently connected with the next President of the South is much divided about his claims to the Constitution. Some say that he has fought a great battle for the Constitution, and is worthy of all honor ; others, charges against him. Admitting that he fought the battle, they yet contend that the battle was fought for Douglas than for the Constitution. Granting that it by no means follows that he would have succeeded on Lincoln's platform, had he deemed success.

They say that Mr. Douglas is the shrewdest of all the doctors of the political faculty,

most sensitive to fluctuations in the popular pulse, his the sagacity most prompt to deduce the proper diagnosis.

In fine, that he understands just how near he can approximate perfect political honesty, and yet be Senator from Illinois. They accredit him with some honest instincts, and allow that he will indulge them, so long as the people are disposed to pet them ; but allege, that if the sovereigns frown, the instincts not being numerous, are subject to extreme ill-usage. They consider that his course on the Lecompton Constitution was eloquent of his political frailty ; and that his profound scholarship in the Constitution, and in first principles, was outraged by his great speech on the President's Message advising the admission of Kansas. They, therefore, say that he made that speech, not because he believed it, but because he deemed it necessary to secure the senatorial success in Illinois. They say that this intense devotion to Douglas was treason to his party, whose unity he invaded, and hence, that it would be the starkest fatuity in the Democratic party, to elevate a man to a higher trust who has shown himself disloyal in the one he holds.

Be this all as it may, it cannot be denied, that, during the canvas in Illinois, and in his speech at New-Orleans, Mr. Douglas uttered sentiments eminently befitting a great statesman ; and promulgated a platform which, with a solitary exception, includes as sound a political creed as the most Southern man should desire.

He vindicated the institution of slavery on moral grounds, and advocated it, as a wise and necessary element in our agricultural system. He contended for the acquisition of *Cuba*, and justified, on considerations of national necessity, the ultimate absorption of Central America, and of Mexico.

The political fly, in this cup of sound doctrine, is his claim of jurisdiction for the territorial legislature. In this, we believe Mr. Douglas to be fundamentally wrong. He defends his theory with wonderful ingenuity, and puts it in a way highly calculated to mislead. The substance of it may be stated somewhat as follows :

Slaves are like all other property, and can claim no privileged distinctions. The territorial legislature has, for example, control over horses, and, therefore, has control over slaves. As a result from this control, it has the right to impose any tax, or prescribe any condition to the ownership of horses, or slaves, which it may think fit. A practical consequence of this right, is, that if the territorial legislature be unfriendly to horses, or slaves, it will set such a tax upon them

as will make their possession unprofitable and expensive. Such a right, Mr. Douglas declares, undoubtedly resides in the territorial legislature, as to horses, and thinks it fatal in the South to discriminate between negroes and any other property.

Mr. Douglas is in error, when he assumes that the South does discriminate between slave and other property; and trebly in error, when he arrogates for the territorial legislature the power to legislate upon slaves, or *any* species of property, in a way which would practically destroy such property. So long as a territory remains in its minority, or territorial condition, it has not the power to decide what shall, and what shall not be property. That is the exclusive attribute and one of the very highest exertions of sovereignty; and a territory is not sovereign until it sheds its dependent character and attains its majority, when it ceases, in fact, to be a territory, and becomes a State.

The territory is the common property of all the States. Hence, the citizen of any State has the right, while the territory remains a territory, to hold and enjoy in it every species of property which his sovereign State recognizes as such.

Under this time-honored principle, and repudiating the discrimination which Mr. Douglas assumes for the South, it is contended that the man from Illinois with his horse, and the man from Mississippi with his negro, have the same right to employ their respective property in the territory, and are equally warranted in denying to the territorial assembly the power to impoverish their estates by destructive legislation.

Under the principles of the Dred Scott decision, to which Mr. Douglas nominally subscribes, his doctrine cannot for a moment hold. That decision announces that property in a State is property in a territory, and therefore, of right, exacts protection. An example will serve best to expose the practical discrepancy which would probably arise between Mr. Douglas and the judiciary, should this question ever come to a real issue.

Suppose the territorial legislature to impose a tax on horses, making that property valueless, and an owner of horses to refuse to pay the tax. What must the United States Court declare under the principles of the Dred Scott decision? Inevitably, that the tax was unconstitutional, for it could truly say, that if a territorial legislature had the right to devastate property by a tax, it would have the right to destroy or abolish it in express words. The one right, practically, includes the other.

However harmonious, then, Mr. Douglas and the Dred Scott decision may be in theory, it is more than probable that their harmony would not survive the strain of a practical test. For should a territorial legislature, at the instigation of Mr. Douglas's logic, denounce against any species of property, a condition which is unequal and oppressive, and a case arising under it, comes before the Supreme Court, it is conceived, that they will decree that a territorial legislature cannot do, by knavish circuitry, what it would be unconstitutional to do in a direct way. The refusal of the court to make such a decision, would be equivalent to admitting that they had no real pith and moment, as a power of the Government.

But to set aside the judgment in the Dred Scott case, and allow the question to relapse into an open one. On first principles, it is difficult to see how the claims of Mr. Douglas, in favor of the legislature of Kansas, can be sustained. According to our theory of government, a legislature is a political body, deriving its life and powers from a constitution. Thus, the Congress of the United States, and the legislatures of the individual States, act by the virtue of the National and the State constitutions. The legislature of Kansas is competent to prescribe laws only by authority of the organic act which erected it into a territory. This territorial bill is, then, the *quasi-constitution* of Kansas; and Congress, as its framer, stands to the legislature which acts under it, in a relation strongly analogous to the one which exists between the people of the United States and the Congress of the United States.

The territorial legislature is therefore the creature of Congress, and is the representative of it, in the sense that Congress is the representative of the people of the Republic.

And hence it is, that when we look into the fundamental law of Kansas, and afterward into the constitutional powers of Congress, and in neither find a warrant for doing an act which the legislature of Kansas *has* done, we must regard it as sinful a blasphemy against true republicanism, as if the Congress of the United States were to undertake to do a thing which the people themselves had not the right to do.

The lapse in Mr. Douglas's logic on this matter, has exposed him in a singular inconsistency. The doctrine of the Wilmot Proviso, which assumes for Congress the power to prohibit slavery in the territories, Mr. Douglas repudiates, with very proper and distinguished scorn; and yet, in the territorial legislature, the mere offspring of a congressional act, he discovers the prohibitive power, which he denies to Congress.

This is the essence of Federalism, disguised incarnation ; it puts the creature just where and Mr. Webster would have always put it,

Mr. Douglas assumes that Kansas is related States, identically as the American colonies England ; and that should Congress trespass administration of Kansas, she would have forcible resistance. Even if this assumption would hardly avail to meet the necessities of argument.

In all revolutions there are two parties. In rebellious Kansas, there would be the people of the United States. Granting the right of revolution, as common to all communities in every exercise of it, a question, equal in importance with the right itself ; and that is, Why properly exercised ? On this question, either the people of Kansas is entitled to judge for itself ; and therefore, in Kansas, the United States would have no right.

Kansas, bestriding the dizzy platform of Mr. Douglas, would proclaim herself sovereign, and repudiate the interference of Congress in any laws, however unconstitutional, and, having no right to separate herself into an independent State.

The people of the United States, on the other hand, that Kansas was a simple dependency, and that they, with the people of Kansas, were proprietors of its vast domain, and, therefore, in its administration ; that any action, on the part of a territorial legislature, directed against any class of persons, would be in fraud of just rights, and a violation of the General Government ; and that any such action, thus stimulated, were resisted by Kansas, should be crushed out at every hazard, at any cost.

It is believed that not much is risked in the above statement, any man, who is honest, and with unprejudiced eyes, would applaud the position of the people of the United States.

Nothing said above can be construed in violation of the right of revolution. The right is perfect, and no other right, is subject to abuse. It is easy to see wherein a territory might properly exert its right. If, for example, Congress were to tax slaves or horses, or immolating any person, the territory would be justly provoked to resist.

But, whether a revolution be rightfully or wrongfully aroused, it is equally a dangerous experiment. If, then, Kansas chooses to grow seditious, she does it at her peril. If she exercises her right of revolution, and establishes her independence, she may thank her stars, and the world will congratulate her upon a most miraculous deliverance. If she fails, and comes to sorrow, she may thank Mr. Douglas and false logic, coupled, perhaps, with some lack of men and cannon.

Mr. Douglas has been misled to think, that the South considers there is any essential difference between negro and other property, by some considerations peculiar to negro property. Against it, and it alone, there is an open, unrelenting, and organized hostility. The public sentiment of an entire section is inflamed by a bitter enmity against it. Thus, it is necessarily more urgent in its appeals to the Government for protection. This has deceived Mr. Douglas into concluding that we separate negroes into a privileged kind of property, whereas, we consider it to be exceptional, not because of any peculiarity in its essence, but because it is warred upon with an exterminating animosity.

On correct reasoning, Congress is the department having special jurisdiction over all squatter sovereignty difficulties. It is the general trustee of all the States, to administer their common property, and its bounden duty is, to afford full protection to each of the heirs. As a logical consequence from this, Congress should interpose, and set aside any territorial law which conflicts with, and pass every law which is necessary to, the security of each citizen in his constitutional rights.

To this, it is objected by many, that it would be unsafe to risk the subject in the hands of Congress; that to give that body jurisdiction over it, would be to put it under the absolute control of an unfriendly majority, who might legislate for the utter destruction of slavery.

To this objection it may be simply answered, that the power to protect does not necessarily include the right to destroy; and that, in the case under consideration, such a construction is positively excluded, by the recognition of negroes in the Constitution as property; an act of Congress destructive of negro property, would be equally destructive of our fundamental law.

For reasons, equally valid with the ones on which these scruples are urged, it might be contended, that the power to lay taxes, the power to declare war, the power to regulate

seminer, and all other powers possessed by the Executive, would be unsafe in its hands. The same system of checks and balances, which this objection founds, was, in the discussions of the Conventions to which the Constitution was originally adopted, waged against every clause of the instrument, which conferred important powers on Congress. If an opposition prevailed, Congress would have been reduced to a mere office of every substantive grant, and the Constitution would have been as ineffective as a blank piece of paper.

The same political balances and checks, of the people in their ultimate action, which to constitutional legislation on other subjects influence it, with reference to slavery in the te

Mr. Douglas's views on squatter sovereignty are the almost universal sentiment of the South and may be the spoil of much political progress.

In his extenuation, however, it must be all practical interests, his ungracious departure faith is utterly without significance. W ultimate status of a territory, it is not a ma consequence, whether the question of slav by the territorial legislature, or by its cons tion. If the majority want slavery, they they don't want it, they'll reject it. Postp until the framing of the constitution, though is of small importance in practice.

The history of the last three or four new Southern mind face to face with two great cannot escape a knowledge of, if it would the North, having the surplus population, strip the South in peopling new territories; as the prices of negroes keep them out of Northern emigrants, who are chiefly poor new territories be framed into 'free States' these facts are now pressing home on the finally drive her to the true solution of the question; for when she at last realizes that she be constructed on the basis of cheap negroes to reopen the trade with Africa.

ART. IV.—THE EFFECTS OF HIGH PRICES OF SLAVES;

CONSIDERED IN REFERENCE TO THE INTERESTS OF AGRICULTURE,
OF INDIVIDUALS, AND OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF VIRGINIA.

[THE following original contribution from the pen of Edmund Ruffin, the distinguished agriculturist, of Virginia, will be found to possess great interest. We must postpone for a month or two the continuation of Mr. Ruffin's paper on the Colonization Society, on account of limited space.—ED.]

IN regard to every undertaking, or pursuit of business, requiring capital for the prosecution, it would be admitted, as a general proposition, that the less the price or value of the stock or capital required, from which to obtain equal amounts of products, the greater would be the net profit of the business, and of every investment therein made.

But though this truth, stated in general terms, would be universally admitted, and without question or doubt, still it would be excepted to by many, if not by most persons in Virginia, as to the especially important subject of agricultural industry and investments. For such exception and denial are necessarily implied in the opinion commonly entertained, that the high prices of lands, and of slaves, are evidences of the prosperous condition of agricultural interests, and of agriculturists, in the localities where such prices prevail.

Land, and the labor required for its culture, constitute the greater proportion of all agricultural capital employed. Greatly expensive as these are, land and labor (and in Virginia it is mainly slave-labor), are but the most important of the materials and tools essential to the carrying on the mechanical operations of tillage, and what may be considered as the manufacturing of the products of agriculture. To whomsoever may be about to invest capital, or to enlarge his previous amount of investment in the business of agriculture, the less the price at which he can purchase land and slaves (they being nearly all the capital required), the greater will be his profits in the production of like amounts of crops, if sold at equal prices. If a certain farm, with a certain number and description of slaves, were bought at fifteen thousand dollars, and would yield annual crops for sale of the market value of four thousand dollars, it is obvious that the agricultural net profit would be very far greater than it would have been if the same property had cost, and was worth in market price, forty thousand dollars.

The error of opinion, which is so common on this subject, is the result of mistaking effects for causes. The increased price of land is generally a true indication of a *preceding* improving, prosperous, and profitable condition of agriculture in that locality. But a preceding increase of price is not evidence of either still improving, continuous, or prospective profitable returns of agriculture, upon the then increased price of land and cost of capital.

The greatly increased prices of slaves do not (as in regard to lands) even offer evidence that their preceding profits have justified the advance of price, but only that the profits of slave labor in *some* locality have been and still are great; for slaves, being moveable, will be rated in price, not by their profits in their actual location, but according to the profits in any other region to which they can be easily transferred. Thus it might be, that while the profits of grain tillage, and of agriculture generally, in Virginia, would yield the least profit, the prices of slaves might be at the highest rate, and also their profits on the cotton and sugar-lands of the more Southern States.

In the last twenty to thirty years, both agricultural improvement and profits have made great advances in Virginia. Mainly in consequence of improvements in fertility and productiveness, the prices of lands have greatly advanced. Let us suppose that this advance of price, on the general average, to be equal to forty per cent. (On particular farms it has been full two hundred per cent.) If the increase of net profit is advanced (by the improvement of the land) in equal proportion to its market price, the land is now as well worth one hundred and forty to a present buyer, as it had been at first worth one hundred to the former owner and first improver. Indeed, it may be worth much more, if additional future improvements are still in certain prospect, from which additional products and still greater profits may be hereafter realized. And so far as such prospective improvements enter into consideration, and make part of a present valuation, it may be conceded that the increased price may also be evidence of future greater value, as well as of preceding and present good products and profits. When such new and permanent improvement, and a certain income therefrom, have been made manifest, it may be a safer, and therefore a better investment, to buy land at the latest and highest price, than it had been at the early low price before the improvements of fertility had been made, and when their feasibility was doubtful or totally unknown. Nevertheless, it is not the less true, that the first improvers who

raised the lands from the lowest to the highest production and actual value, derived more profit during the process and progress of that improvement, than they or their successors could do at the later time of highest value and price, and maximum production of the lands. Further: the first term during which the lands rose (by their improved production) from a low to a high market price, must have presented a more prosperous and more profitable condition of agriculture, than when, after the completion of their improvement, the lands had reached their highest state of production and of price.

No farmer can afford, or will long endure, to cultivate land on which his agricultural and other products regularly fall short of yielding a fair and ordinary interest or profit, on his whole capital so employed. Negligence of calculation, and ignorance of the amount of loss, may cause many particular and temporary exceptions. But, as a general rule, men will not invest capital, nor continue previous investments, in pursuits which do not yield the ordinary safe profits of capital. Therefore, if such reduction of profits shall occur in Virginia, the first effect will be to deter persons, as new undertakers, from investing capital in agriculture; and this will so far lessen the demand of purchasers, and increase the supply of land offered for sale beyond the effective demand, that the price of land must fall, as a certain consequence. So would the price of our slaves decline, for the same reason, if they were fixed to the farm, or to Virginia. But as their market price is regulated entirely by the demand and higher appreciation in the more Southern States, there will be no reduction of their selling value, for removal, because of the lower value of their labor at home only.

In another aspect we may see the same conclusion reached. The capital of the farmer in Virginia is made up mainly of land and slaves. Of this compound amount, the necessary slaves constitute a large proportion, and in many cases the larger proportion, of the whole mixed investment of capital. Considered merely as the necessary total investment in farming stock, and while yielding good profits on the whole amount, it matters not to the farmer how much value of his mixed capital is of land, and how much of slaves. It is only necessary to him that the two together shall yield good and sufficient products and profits on their united and total amount. In the last fifteen years the price of slaves has risen full one hundred per cent. This increase of their price has not been caused by the actual increase of the value of their labor and their products at home, but by the higher value and greater demand for

them abroad. Excepting, therefore, the for the improved fertility and net products of increased in equal proportion with the doub of slaves, no new undertaker could afford t investment in agriculture in Virginia, without vailing reduction of cost in the other necessa. And such reduction can only be found, or man and this operation (which is already begun will necessarily follow and increase with the for sale exceeding the demand of new purch the prices for slaves have already exceeded th labor in Virginia, so far that excess has alre demand for investments in agriculture, and reduce the price of land. And the more t slaves shall rise, still more, and in full proport ate further to reduce the price of land, and t of cultivation (or to render its cultivation mor cause of the loss (by their removal to the Sou needed for cultivation in Virginia, and whic very deficient in number.

Probably but few owners of slaves have them merely on the consideration that it would be able to sell than to retain them as laborers, as capital. But whether the recourse to sale is ed, by the present owners, the end will be th or less time. At the present high prices of takers can afford to make new and complete vestments. No such case has occurred within or information, for the last two years. It is already established and successful farmers, w slaves than they before owned, may buy a few great deficiencies of labor, and to prevent g losses. But even such men as these do not, a ably, buy half so many additional slaves as t for their labor, and as they would buy, if prices. Consequently, though the general has is greater than would be supplied by all the of numbers of our slaves, the *home market d* nothing, compared to the effective *Southern* slaves. Thus, whenever debt, or necessity, or ion of slaves among heirs, compels the sale t all sold must be sent abroad. It is supposed draft and deportation thus made on our stock in number all the increase in slaves in Virginia. This loss must continually increase with the

producing causes, and with increasing rapidity; and sooner or later the operation must remove so many of our slaves, as necessarily to destroy the institution of negro slavery within the limits of Virginia. Every successive step of approach to this end will be more and more calamitous to the economical, social, and political interests of this commonwealth; and the complete consummation will be one of the greatest of evils to the whole of the Southern States, of which, as yet, Virginia forms an integral part, in sentiment, interest, and in institutions and policy.

Some persons, even in Virginia, and at this late day, would deny that there would be these or any general evils produced by the extinction of slavery in Virginia, by this operation of gradual sale and deportation. To the holders of such opinions, or any others of the anti-slavery school, I shall not oppose a word of argument. There are also many other persons who deem that the highest price for slaves is always beneficial to the owners, and that any injury from their sale abroad, at such high prices, if in numbers short of the annual increase, will be more than counterbalanced by the large sums thus received by the sellers, and added to the general wealth of the community. Treating this merely as a question of values or of economy, I will estimate nothing on the score of feeling and humanity, and the disruption of all the ties that must be caused by this general, though gradual and long-continuing deportation of all the slave population of Virginia. But considering the question merely as to values, and without descending to details, I maintain that no possible increase of market price, or of pecuniary profit to the seller in each particular case of the sale of slaves, can compensate the commonwealth for the enormous accompanying evils, even if these evils were merely social and political. But to reach the end—of the removal of all slaves and of negro slavery—which some few of our distinguished politicians and political editors even now look forward to as a benefit—our people and commonwealth must first pass through various other conditions of loss and calamity—the gradual deprivation of necessary agricultural labor—lands reduced more and more in price, deprived of necessary means for fertilization, badly tilled, and much even thrown out of cultivation—the emigration of numerous slaveholders and agriculturists, and of the wealthier and most industrious of our people, because agricultural capital in Virginia could no longer yield profit; and the general deterioration, social, moral, and intellectual, of the remaining diminished population of the State. Even the later supply and substitu-

tion of a laboring class of foreigners and Yan a new population (which is the great com expected and promised by anti-slavery theo could not be made way for nor effectively inv prior nearly complete removal of slave labor, quent lowest prostration of prices of the l prosperity of the still existing remnant of t lation. When a descent shall have been thus former property-holder has been either driven a remaining, it is true that a new colonizing of wasted territory might and would be effected, which it is one of the important benefits of tution of negro slavery to keep away and to I will not attempt, by any opposing argumen satisfaction of those persons who can imagi for thus destroying the present population an of Virginia, in the prospective establishment of calamity and desolation, of a Yankee o territory of Virginia. It is not to such r remarks are addressed, but to those who, like existing institution of negro slavery to be blessings, and that its removal, by any means be an unmixed evil and a curse to the whole

So far, reference has been made only (or n interests and results. Let us now consider bearing on private or individual interests.

Even if the commonwealth should suffer the loss of agricultural labor, in the gr eventual prostration of the price of lands, in its best and most wealthy population, in the up of the sources of public revenue, and so credit if not also State solvency, in staryi stifling refinement of manners, and lowerin and intellectual station; still it would be persons, that individual slave-owners at le the existing high prices, and will be still m further increase of the foreign demand for, a tation of slaves. This may be true in mar if we look solely to the immediate intere individual seller, and to that particular tra only. It may be true, and permanently, ir if the individual seller (by early emigra shall escape being involved in the later and his country. But all such cases will form b to the general rule, that the greatest (supp

of individual sellers of slaves at highest prices, will be more than counterbalanced in their own shares of the remote loss and damage inflicted on the community by the whole system of extensive sale and deportation of slaves. And putting aside the effects on the general interests of the commonwealth, the greatest amount of gain produced by the high prices of slaves to their individual owners are not so great as the amount of disadvantage and loss, produced by that same cause, to the interests of a much greater number of other individuals and members of the same community.

The individuals who are benefited by obtaining prices for slaves too great to be afforded by any persons who would desire to buy here, are those only who choose or are compelled to sell slaves. There are almost no slaveholders and farmers who, of their own choice, would, by selling some of their slaves, lessen the amount of labor, which is already deficient on almost every farm. They who thus make partial sales, are very generally such as are compelled to sell because of improvidence, bad management, and consequent debt, or other great necessity. No persons look forward to sell, and so to profit by the existing or prospective high prices of slaves, except those who also expect to be compelled by debt, and these are fewer, by many, than the number who will be actually so compelled at later times. Then it is only the few persons who expect to be compelled to sell slaves who also can expect to obtain any pecuniary gain from the highest price of slaves. To all other persons, more than ten-fold in number, high price is either of no operation, good or bad, or it is an injury and an obstacle to prevent their obtaining greater pecuniary gain by employing more slave labor. To the farmer and slaveholder of ordinary and average industry and thrift, whose other means and extent of labor increase as his slaves increase by procreation and growth, who neither desires nor expects to sell or to buy slaves, but only to bequeath those which he possesses and their increase to his children—it is clear that such a person neither gains nor loses by high, nor would lose by a low market price for slaves. They are worth to him the actual value of the net products of their labor (which he cannot dispense with), and there is no difference to his income or interests whether his best slaves would sell for one thousand five hundred dollars, or for but five hundred dollars. If a man so situated sells a vicious slave, he will need to fill his vacant place by the purchase of one more suitable, and still there will be neither gain nor loss in the rate of price, whether both are high or both are low, in the sale and purchase.

THE EFFECTS OF HIGH PRICES OF SLAVES.

But besides these two classes of farmers and slaveholders, there is another, the members of which are the most industrious, thriving, and of most utility and benefit to their country. These, by the continued extending of their agricultural improvements and labors, need more slaves than they possess, and yet cannot afford to buy them because of their exorbitant prices. If to be bought at lower and remunerating prices, these men alone would buy as many slaves as would be sold by all the improvident and necessitous owners, and thus there would be retained to the commonwealth, and transferred to the most profitable service, all the labor that is now lost and is so greatly needed. There are now in Virginia, even of those already slaveholders, ten men of this most useful class, who would be glad to buy and employ more slaves, where there is one of the indebted or improvident class who is compelled to sell. And more slaves are needed, and would be bought and retained by residents, if at low prices, than are now sold and sent abroad to obtain the present high prices. To say nothing of higher considerations, and public or general interests, the benefit that would ensue to individual buyers from greatly and permanently reduced prices for slaves, would be much greater than would thereby be lost in price to all the individuals who are sellers.

But even this is but a very contracted view and comparison of the private interests at stake—and of the balance of benefit that would accrue, first to private individuals, and through them to the community. The foregoing estimate and comparison of interests were limited to actual slave-owners. But the number of slave-owners would be greatly increased (perhaps doubled), if the prices of slaves were greatly reduced. It is not needed to set forth the advantages to the commonwealth, and to the slaveholding interest, of increasing the number of additional proprietors of slaves. And besides all such new recruits to the slaveholding interest, every other man in the commonwealth, who expected or hoped to be able to become a slaveholder at any future time, would deem his wishes and interest forwarded and served by such reduction of the market price of slaves, as would offer the only ground on which to rest his hopes.

But there are many persons who, even while admitting the truth of more or less (and even of the whole) of the position here assumed, still will claim, as a great gain and profit, be private and public, to Virginia, the large amount of money received for the slaves annually sold and carried to the South. Suppose the number so removed, to be now at the rate

twenty thousand a year, and they being mostly of the more valuable classes, may be averaged at eight hundred dollars, making the total amount of purchase money sixteen millions of dollars a year. Whatever evils and sufferings may be incident to these sales, it is conceded by most persons, and scarcely denied by any, that the money thus received is, at least, so much profit to the sellers, and to the commonwealth, in the same manner as would be obtained from the sale of any other production of agriculture. This I deny. Such would indeed be true, if the slaves sold were all surplus, and not needed either for the service of their owners or the benefit of the commonwealth. But such is not the case, in any respect. Crops sold and exported are entirely surplus, and every dollar's worth sent away is so much gain to the individual producer and to the public interests. And any portion of such surplus, that was held back from sale (or as profitable use or consumption), would be so much of waste and dead loss to the producer and to the country. Also of the grazing and fattening animals, which constitute the great agricultural products of the western portion of Virginia, the annual sales are strictly confined to the surplus animals, of which the removal does not detract from the present productive value, or the future increase of the numbers retained on each farm. It is an old calumny, often repeated in England and by Northern abolitionists, that negroes are bred and reared in these older Southern States for sale, and that the surplus individuals were annually selected for market, precisely in the same manner as a grazier selects his beasts for sale. If this charge were as entirely true as it is entirely false, however odious, abhorrent, and indefensible would be the practice, it yet might be truly claimed as being profitable to the full extent of the operation. For in that case only surplus and therefore (at home) useless slaves would be sold—and the number so abstracted could never encroach on the amount of slave labor required for the most profitable tillage of our State; and, therefore, if these motives and objects, and these only, operated to sell our slaves abroad, there would be now, and perhaps for many years to come, a complete cessation of all sales of slaves for exportation. For the proper tillage and improvement of our own lands, and other uses at home, now require, and could advantageously employ (if to be bought at fair prices), every slave that is now sent out of the State. The actual sales are rarely induced because the slaves sold were surplus to the owners—and never because they are surplus to the commonwealth. It is the debt or necessity of the owners,

that leaves to them no choice, but to sell some of and it is their much greater value and price forbids other persons here from buying and retail that are sold and carried away. And when slaves are compelled, the selected subjects for sale are plus, or the least useful individual slaves, but most efficient young laborers, of both sexes, become command the highest market prices. Further not made by owners, or from farmers, where slaves supplied, and where any loss of hands would but most generally where labor was previously both to the land and to the owner.

Another view will serve more clearly to dissipate pecuniary gain to the commonwealth from the slave. It is a fact, known to every man of observation, that labor is greatly deficient in all Virginia, especially in the rich western counties, which, for scarcely yet yield in the proportion of one tenth of the crop. There is scarcely a farm in Virginia where slave labor is not needed, and could be profitable for the improvement and tillage of the fields. Perhaps ten times the present number of slaves are required (bought at low price) could be advantageous to both private and public interests. Under such circumstances the removal of every slave from the State is a loss of the value of the service or hire of such slave the amount of additional crop or other produce of such slave would have made if retained, and which has been made, because of his removal and the deficiency of so much labor. A young negro man may cost a year for \$130 and his maintenance; and his value to all the other capital of a farm that needed him probably add not less than \$300 to the net sale of the farm. If, then, this slave were removed, and, of course, so much labor as he would have omitted, the annual loss to the farm, and to the community, would not be merely \$130, the market price of the slave, but the \$300, the value of what would have been produced by his year's labor. Again: Suppose that a farmer, tempted by the offer of double prices, to sell his horses and other plough teams, though he would not replace them for a year. It is obvious that the loss would not be the fair value, or price of the horses and other working teams for a year, but the crop which he would fail to make for a

labor, and which would amount to very much more than either double or quadruple prices for the animals he sold. Now, the sale of every useful slave from Virginia is, in like manner, a loss to the commonwealth of all the net products of the labor of such slave if remaining. Such labor cannot be replaced for the State; and therefore the loss continues for all the time that the laborer, if retained, would have been useful. Four years, estimated at \$300 of net products so lost, would amount to \$1,200, or about the highest present price for young and able men. According to these views, the highest prices yet obtained from the foreign purchasers of our slaves have never left a profit to the State, or produced pecuniary benefit to general interests. And even if prices should still continue to increase, as there is good reason to expect and to dread, until they reach \$2,000 or more for the best laborers, or \$1,200 for the general average of ages and sexes, these prices, though necessarily operating to remove every slave from Virginia, will still cause loss to agricultural and general interests, in every particular sale—and finally render the State a desert and a ruin.

R.

HANOVER CO., VIRGINIA.

[NOTE.—The remarks offered in the foregoing argument, on the causes and effects of high and low prices of lands, and on the supposed future and general substitution of free labor in Virginia, were but incidental to the main proposition, and therefore were treated as concisely as possible. These subjects will be resumed in another article, and discussed more fully, as their importance deserves.]

ART. V.—UNIFORM POSTAGE, RAILROADS, TELEGRAPHS, FASHIONS, ETC.

[WHAT the author of "Cannibals All" writes and sends us, we publish without hesitation, knowing him to be a bold, fearless, ingenuous, learned, though somewhat eccentric writer. We do not deem it necessary to enter into an argument with him, where our opinions differ, and the points of difference are not few, being satisfied that his views are original, interesting, and so far as the political and social bodies politic are involved, to say the least, not unhealthful. In his warfare upon what is called "modern progress" and the "isms" which attend it, he will no doubt have the sympathies of the enlightened everywhere, however they may hesitate to follow him in all the wanderings of his wit and humor and philosophy. Our own opinions upon measures and things, are expressed sufficiently often to be well understood by the readers of the Review.]

ALL modern discoveries in physical science, and all modern inventions and improvements in mechanical construction, con-

centre in begetting centralization—centralization of power, of skill, of taste, of thought, fashion, language, and civilization. Human progress in making the poor poorer, the ignorant more ignorant and the criminal more vile and debased, and in the riches of the wealthy and the learning of the learned is power, and its power is ten-fold increased by improvements, especially in locomotion and intercommunication. Capital naturally and greedily appropriates the good things of life. It locates itself in large cities, means of the profits of trade, robs the country of its smaller towns, its schools, its manufacturing skill, its intellect, and of all save its manual labor. Centralization which it begets does not end here; it lessens the power of the poor laborers, in the large cities, of the fruits of their labor, as it does the power of the Chinese or the oppressed Hindoos. Modern civilization, under the banner of free trade, first robs the country of its smaller towns, and then, by centralization, pinches, nay, almost starves, the populations of the large cities where it has taken its abode, in order to build up more than princely fortunes for a few vulgar, cunning, selfish millionaires.

Our postage laws are admirably contrived to doubt intended, to facilitate these processes: first, to rob the operatives of the South; secondly, to make fortunes for a few puffing mammoth establishments, engaged in various ways in the large cities at the North. The Southern press and book-trade should look to this matter. One of the defects of our postage laws is most obvious in its effects, but ultimately it affects injuriously all interests; and those injurious effects are greatly increased by the operation of railroads and telegraphs. Letter postage is uniform in amount throughout the country. The Government undertakes to carry *freight*—for sixteen cents a pound, from New York to New Orleans, and charges sixteen cents per pound for it if carried only ten miles. The New-York merchants catalogue of their complete assortments of merchandise to all quarters of the Union; a merchant in New-York, being charged no more postage to send to New-York for it, because his customer is sure to send to New-York for it, because his customer may not have it, or, if he has, the inju-

laws charge him as much for remitting the book twenty miles as they charge the New-York merchant for sending it three thousand miles. Small towns draw their support from customers close around them; large ones, from the whole Union. These laws rob the poor, to give to the rich; oppress the weak, to benefit the strong; ruin the small towns, to build up the large ones. The railroads do all they can to help carry out this iniquitous policy, and charge sometimes rates five times as high to their neighbors, who travel short distances within their own State, as to foreigners who travel long distances, to the great cities of the North. The great Northern houses send forth their puffs, advertisements, circulars, and drummers, for half-price, because they send them long distances. Centralization is the daughter of that Southern goddess, Free Trade; and centralization will be petted and fostered by the Southern delegation, who are free trade men, until a new generation of men is sent to Congress from the South. When Doctor Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood, not a single physician in London over forty years of age could possibly understand it, or would even believe it. We don't write for either the masses or the old fogies, for the masses *cannot* understand us, and the old fogies are so wedded to their idols that they *will not* understand us. We write for the intelligent young and middle-aged, and for an appreciative posterity.

We don't expect or wish to be read at any time by the masses. They never have read and never will read a well-written work or production, because they can neither understand nor appreciate what is well written. They do not read Shakspeare, nor the Bible, nor the Greek and Roman classics, nor any book which requires an effort of thought. They delight in novels, and like the lowest, such as Dickens's and Smollett's and Fielding's; but the only novel (if novel it may be called) which they do not read, is Don Quixote; and that is the only one ever written which deserves to be read. Half the graduates of our colleges belong to the masses. They are lashed through the classics at school, but never recur to them after leaving school. They prefer bawdy novels and pictorial newspapers.

Under the system we are describing, Northern pictorial papers fleece the South out of thousands, by publishing the disgusting details of ordinary atrocities, and out of hundreds of thousands, for murder in high life. The circulation of half the Northern papers that come South, is an offence "*Contra bonos mores*." There are plenty of able and decent publications at the North, but it is only the "cheap and vile," "made to sell," that circulate

largely. It is the same case with Northern manufacturers of all kinds; none but the most indifferent are brought into the Southern market. The puffing and drumming system, which began at the North, and which is being imitated and followed at the South, makes that which is most worthless the most popular and profitable. Great statesmen, great writers, great inventions, are but humbugs, created, inflated and palmed upon the public, by cheap papers, cheap postage, cheap railroads, telegraphs, free trade, and other modern improvements. Cheap literature is a curse, because to circulate extensively and make large profits, it adapts itself to the lowest tastes, the lowest information, and the lowest state of morality. Its catalogue of crimes and its obscenities suit depraved or vitiated tastes, and its fictions help grown-up children to understand what would otherwise be unintelligible to them. A Northern paper gives a writer, manufactured into reputation and celebrity by antecedent puffing, many thousands for weekly articles. The articles are tame and stupid in the excess, and intelligent men wonder at the editor's folly. They forget that the world is not made up of intelligent men, but chiefly of dull and ignorant men. The nonsense and the pictures please the million, and put money in the pocket of the editor. Pictorial books used only to be placed in the hands of *little children*—they have found their way to the hands of big children.

The Southern press is, so far as we know, moral, respectful, decent, and gentlemanly, in its tone. It contains no pictures, no humbugs, no trickery of any kind. It is addressed to readers, a large majority of whom are intelligent, moral, religious, and conservative, and who would indignantly repel such stuff as that which oozes from the depraved press of the North.

But while most men at the South who read are moral, religious, intelligent, and conservative, we have, scattered here and there, many weak and vicious people, whose minds can only be affected through the medium of a picture, and whose tastes can only be gratified by reading the profane, the obscene, the destructive, agrarian, and horrible. The postage laws are admirably adapted to pander to such weak minds and such depraved tastes, and to build up Northern cities, at the expense of the South.

The whigs say, a protective tariff will set things right. Such a tariff does cut off much that is vile, useless, and noxious, from Europe, but it aggravates the disease it was intended to cure, by flooding us with worse commodities and a worse literature from the North than Europe can furnish. The Democrats claim, "Demand will regulate supply, free trade will do business!"

Why, the disease under which we suffer, is but free trade, and if we can exclude free trade we exclude the foul literature and the worthless manufactures of the North that afflict the South like the plagues of Egypt. There is no danger that this class of literature can arise and be supported in the South. The number of readers of such stuff is too small to defray the expense of publication.

One measure of relief would be fairly and honestly to charge postage according to weight and distance. Another, for each of the Southern States to tax heavily all foreign books and periodicals and manufactures. Another, to dissolve the Union. Then, the tariff necessary to support government, would build up manufactures, and centres of trade, thought, and fashion, at the South, besides excluding the vicious foreign literature with which we are now deluged. We greatly prefer the State protective or taxing system. By it, we have excluded the pedlars, showmen, and itinerant clock-venders, and foreign free negroes; and by it we can exclude whatever we please. It is safer than disunion, equally efficient, and involves no breach of the Constitution.

Massachusetts has nullified the fugitive slave law, and is carrying on war from the stump and the lecture-room, from her press, and her courts, and legislative halls, against us and our institutions. We admit her right to nullify the laws of the Union; we admit her right to exclude us and our slaves from her territory; we admit her separate nationality, and all the rights incident and pertaining to separate nationality. If she thinks slavery a great sin, if she thinks its presence in her territory a moral evil or pest, if she thinks Southerners hold opinions calculated to injure the morals of her people, and to subvert her social institutions, she is right, very right, to exclude Southerners and their slaves from her domain. Nay, she should go farther, not only exclude Southerners (as South Carolina has free negroes), but should also exclude Southern products, and prohibit all trade with the infected South.

But let her recollect that two can play at this game; that the Southern States are separate nations, with all the rights pertaining to nationality; that they too can nullify; that they may, and are in duty bound to, adopt such measures, and enact such laws, as will secure the safety of their social institutions, preserve the morals of their people, and insure the possession of their property. Massachusetts white men are more dangerous incendiaries than Massachusetts free negroes, and if we may exclude the latter, "*a fortiori*" may we exclude the former. We can without breach of the Federal

Constitution, out off all trade with Massachusetts with her citizens. We may punish, imprisonment, every citizen of the South who sends merchandise from Massachusetts, every one who sends other articles to Massachusetts, every one who sends a child to school in Massachusetts, teacher, artisan, or laborer from Massachusetts or associates with a Massachusetts man or woman we may do, and no federal authority can interfere with us and *our own citizens*. All this we may do of the letter or spirit of the Constitution; for the amendments were intended to protect State property, and to carry into practical effect the intention. We have begun the work. South Carolina the weak and harmless free negroes, "the flies we shall gather courage to attack the wasps; bees!

These measures would form part of the protection, a system that admits of various adaptation and application. But *Protection* old party leaders at the South. Free trade an not "Protection and Southern rights," is thei *ses faire*," Let alone—Do nothing, "*Pas tro* their cherished philosophy.

If the old fogies, sitting like an incubus on not permit her to protect herself in the Union so would violate the teachings of political economy the name of reason, common sense, and patriotism we are out of it the better. In the Union trade system, the South is, and must continue of Homer's heroes, "The food for cunning Yanks keeping Englishmen." Out of it, she would lightened, and independent.

No people have more individual pride and Southerners; none are so wholly destitute of respect and self-appreciation. And for what cause they are the victims of free trade, whether their purses and their minds; because they import manufactures, their books, their thoughts, their money from abroad. They read only English authors and learn from them to admire and ape what the Northern, and to despise what is Southern. Mr. Wright very truly shows that England in her political economy, in order that, having more money and knowledge of trade, than other nations,

or get advantage, of all with whom she traded. We, at her bidding, teach a science which not only impoverishes us and uncivilizes us, but which is directly at war with our social institutions.

Political economy is but the science of free society. It arose as a fact and a system so soon as serfdom was abolished in Europe, and men were placed in seemingly equal, but actually competitive and antagonistic relations; when the irresponsible, selfish, unfeeling dominion of capital was substituted for the responsible, humane, God-ordained, natural, and affectionate relation of master and slave. It existed as a fact for centuries before Adam Smith promulgated it as a philosophy. He but described and justified what he saw in active operation around him. We dare any political economist to attempt to deny and refute these propositions.

If it be a true system of philosophy, then is our social system radically wrong. In teaching it, we but teach abolition, for it is the philosophy of abolition, and grew out of abolition. We could give abundant proof that our positions are the prevalent doctrines of enlightened men of all parties, but readers of ordinary historical information will need no such proof. We will confine ourselves to the citation of a single recent authority.

In an article in the *North British Review* for August, 1858, entitled, "State Papers, The Reformation Period," page 32, American Edition, we find the following language; and ask Southern free trade statesmen and Southern professors of political economy, if it be not true, and, if true, if they are not assiduously inculcating and teaching abolition—at least in the germ?

"The dismemberment of Feudalism having opened the way for the rise of commercial activity, the commercial relation of master and workman was rather created than changed by the new order of things. But the agricultural relation of landholder and peasant was one that had subsisted for ages—which had survived revolutions and changes of dynasty, and to which that gradual unloosing of the old feudal bondage was the greatest of the changes by which it had been overtaken. The obligations of slavery held in bondage alike slaveholder and slave, and thus the destruction of the feudal bond which linked them together, was the removal of a yoke to both landholder and peasant. The peasant was freed from very much of the old physical tyranny, and thus left more like a free agent, and less like a mere fixture to the farm on which he was born. But he was not only freed from the feudal yoke; he also lost the feudal protection. When the bonds were broken which made him the serf of landholders, the tie was riven which bound him to the land. If the landholder lost the benefits of his lordship, he resigned with them its duties and obligations. The peasant, now no longer a serf, had no longer the serf's right to be maintained by the landholder; being freed from his attachment to the soil, he could no longer, with equal right, claim his sustenance from it. But still both

peasant and landholder were mutually as dependent on each other as before. The land of the landholder would be unproductive without the labor of the peasant, and the peasant had no means of subsistence except in the performance of those very services to the landholder, which, as a serf, he was compelled to perform. Thus, the bond between them being broken, both classes were thrown back upon the cold justice of the laws of political economy—laws representing the mere balance of clashing interests, and founded essentially upon the selfishness of human nature!"

Such is the birth, origin, and character of Political Economy.

We write "*currente calamo*," and have overlooked the centralizing influence of fashion, when combined with and aiding modern physical inventions, and mechanical improvements, in stimulating free trade. The South originates no fashions, but imports them all from abroad. She reads, eats, drinks, and wears, not what she thinks good or convenient, nor what is good, appropriate, beautiful, or convenient, but gives fine prices for unsuitable things, because the fashions of Paris, London, and New-York, require her to use them. Fashion is a powerful helpmate to free trade in fleecing the South. She should have her own fashions. The true remedy and corrective is, to counteract centralization from *without*, by building up centralization *within*.

ART. VI.—THE THREE WILLIAM AND MARY ALUMNI PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

It is known to the public that, on the sixteenth day of February last, the one hundred and sixty-sixth anniversary of William and Mary College, at Williamsburgh, Virginia, was celebrated by an oration from Ex-President John Tyler, by a poem from Saint-George Tucker, by certain demonstrations on the part of the two literary societies of the college, and by a dinner at the old Raleigh Hotel, where, in answer to the regular toasts, various speeches were made, by Governor Wise and others. The proceedings throughout, judging from what we hear, were intensely interesting. The oration, the poem, the speeches, all were of the deepest historical value, not only to the immediate locality, the college, and the State of Virginia, but also to the entire country: and that which invested them with a more profound importance was the destruction by fire, a few days before the celebration, of the college building and library, valued at one hundred thousand dollars. This building as erected in 1727, after a previous destruction by fire, in

1719, of the original, modeled after Oxford, by Sir Christopher Wren; and the library had been presented chiefly by the various crowned heads of Europe. It was, perhaps, the best theological library in the Union, and many editions were of the costliest description, to be obtained now neither through favor, nor for money.

This college assumed its present name in 1692, under an endowment from King William and Queen Mary, and, dating from that period, is the oldest institution of learning in the United States with the exception of Harvard. But its earliest endowment, under the name of Henrico College, was in the year 1619, before the Pilgrim Fathers landed at Plymouth. Its Catalogue of Alumni presents a brilliant galaxy of divines, jurists, warriors, and statesmen, unsurpassed by that of any institution of learning of the same age in the world; and regarding the limited number of her matriculates in comparison with the more numerous lists of other universities, it is wonderful to behold the array of her great names. The Jeffersons, Monroes, Tylers, Marshalls, Madisons, Harrisons, Tazewells, Wythes, Blands, Roanes, Rives, Randolphs, Scotts, Croghans, Leighs, Archers, Johnsons, Munfords, Murrays, Nicholas's, Bibbs, Crittendens, Lawsons, Crumps, Prestons, Seldens, Lightfoots, Braxtons, Carters, Stanards, Pages, Cloptons, Byrds, Jones's, Lewis's, Travis's, Browns, Burwells, Tuckers, Taylors, Saunders's, Masous, Fairfax's, Wallers, and *many others*, among the most glorious that have graced our country's annals before, during, and since the Revolution, are to be found among her children. By the terms of the endowment made by King William and Queen Mary, she was given the office and profits of the surveyor-generalship of the Colony of Virginia, and she first made Washington her surveyor and afterward her chancellor. At the present time Ex-President Tyler is her rector; and she is to be resurrected on her ancient foundations.

We understand that the proceedings of the 16th February were reported in full for the New-York *Herald* by a member of the reportorial corps of that paper; that, in fact, this person applied to and obtained from Mr. Tyler a copy of his oration, and from Mr. Tucker a copy of his poem, before the public proceedings took place. Why have not these proceedings been given to the country, with all their wealth of history and deep import to the college? It is evident a heavy responsibility rests somewhere for the failure. From the brief notes with which we have been furnished, we take pleasure in transferring to our pages the significant remarks made by one of the gentlemen present at the dinner at the Raleigh, in response to the seventh regular

toast. We do this, because they sentimentiously associated with this college, which, in itself, an admiration and gratitude of the whole count *especially command the serious consideration*. We would be highly gratified, and others doubt to see in print those made by Mr. Grigsby and both of whom preceded the speaker we shall qu appears from his remarks, had for the most p interesting ground of the sentiment assigned to the memories of the *Apollo Hall!* It was in the mistake, that some of the most daring and co ceedings connected with the Revolution occur 1775, under the lead of Patrick Henry and Lee. It was in that hall, we believe, that in House of Burgesses had been dismissed by from their chamber in the Capitol, its membe a general convention of the People, and passed "Declaration of American Rights." And it w lieve, that, in 1775, when Lord Dunmore agai House of Burgesses, for what he conceived t proceedings, they again assembled on their ind sonal responsibility, and passed their memorabl *tion acts,*" together with other measures no History tells us, if not this, something like hall; and such a theme in the hands of Mr. G ernor Wise must have been treated in a m We deeply regret the failure in the publication c and we still hope to have them. In the mes our readers the pregnant facts to which we l contained, according to our notes, in the remarl to the seventh regular toast, viz.:

"The next regular toast was 'The Old Apollo! See Liberty and to memory. In the days of the Revolution it re of Freedom and Independence; and its patriot spirit cau Mary, was enshrined upon her altars, and has been always f of her sons.'

"The gentleman to whom this sentiment was assigned, r
"Mr. President: In the course of a life not altogether often had reason to congratulate myself on the good provid ed me out of peril and difficulty, but never more than on th When, on taking my seat at this table, I first received the announced, with the request I would respond to it, I saw, braced a history and a memory that made me tremble in th surpassing the delineating power of my unpractised tongue. years past, since the time I last looked on this old hall, live action rather than words, and lost the habit of post-prandial s; not meet the requirements of the theme presented. But, fr placing me seventh on the list, I have been so fortunate as t subject by our excellent friend Mr. Grigsby, and by our w

Wise. History and the muses have been the constant and familiar companions of Mr. Grigsby, and from him you have received a narration of this Hall I may not rival; while the eloquent treat received from Governor Wise, glittering with the memories that surround us here, reminds me of the splendid compliment paid by Thucydides, at the Court of Sparta, to Pericles of Athens—and which I here pay to him—*‘when I throw him in the wrestling ring,’* said Thucydides, *‘he claims that he threw me, and persuades the people to believe him.’* It would be presumption in me to speak to a subject they have spoken to, and I am relieved from the embarrassment that possessed me through the exemption they have thus extended to me. But without this, the whole matter of the sentiment before me has been exhausted by the magnificent oration and beautiful poem of the morning, and nothing is left for me to do with propriety, save to congratulate myself on being once more in this Hall, and especially on so memorable an occasion as the present.

“It is true, sir, if I was fond of hearing the sound of my own voice, and by taking to myself an inexcusable latitude, I might, perhaps, recur to reminiscences of a general character, as yet untouched; for here, as Byron says of Rome,

‘We go stumbling over recollections.’

But at this late hour, and after all we have heard, it would be an unpardonable license for me to take. I may not be censured, however, for calling your attention to one special fact associated with the sentiment announced, which has been, I believe, uncommented upon; and in being left by my distinguished predecessors this single incident for expatiation, I again consider myself most fortunate. You have heard it said already, that within the chambers once enclosed by yonder smoking ruin, were educated, in John Marshall, the ablest Chief Justice of the United States, and, in Winfield Scott, the greatest captain of the age. (*Applause.*) Through them the patriot spirit of this hall, enshrined upon the altars of William and Mary, has been duly reflected. But that spirit, so enshrined, has been still further reflected, in a more exalted manner if possible, through the THREE WILLIAM AND MARY ALUMNI PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES. (*Loud applause.*) I call your attention, first, to the fact, that, of all your presidents and statesmen, with the exception of Washington—and he was the surveyor and then the chancellor of William and Mary—our country is indebted more to Thomas Jefferson, James Monroe, and John Tyler, for the true adjustment of our foreign and domestic policy, for the true interpretation of the Constitution, for the extension of our institutions, the development of our resources, the strengthening of our power, and the expansion of our greatness, than to any and all others whatever. (*Loud applause.*) In the second place, I call your attention to the further fact, that, of all your Presidents and statesmen, with the exception of Washington, these three William and Mary Alumni Presidents of the United States, *alone*, while magnifying the riches, the power, the greatness, and the glory of the Union, never lost sight of the importance of maintaining, in their full integrity, and in full and perfect co-equality within the Confederacy, the Southern or slaveholding section of States. (*Repeated applause.*) Through Mr. Jefferson you obtained the Louisiana purchase, embracing Louisiana proper, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, Oregon, and Washington, *together with the mouths of the Mississippi.* Through Mr. Monroe you obtained Florida, *together with the keys to the Gulf of Mexico.* And through Mr. Tyler you obtained Texas, *together with the monopoly of the cotton plant.* (*Loud and prolonged applause.*) Not to mention other great acts of statesmanship, connected with both our foreign and domestic policy, that characterized the administrations of each of these celebrated men, these acquisitions and measures, viewed, by themselves, in the light of their value to our commerce, our manufactures, and our agriculture, and regarded in the light of their conservative and preservative influences on the Union, and considered in the light of their vast and mighty national sequences, as regards the whole world, whether in time of war, or whether in time of peace, justly entitle them to the most conspicuous niches in our temple of fame, hallow the spirit and the memory of this hall, and call aloud on all the people for gratitude to them, and to old William and Mary. (*Repeated and long-continued applause.*)

“In conclusion, Mr. President, I beg leave to offer you a sentiment in return

for that to which I have essayed to speak, accompanied by a single remark. In times past, when this hall was fresh with the memories that cluster so thickly around it; when those eminent patriots of the Revolution, retiring from the House of Burgesses at the command of the king's vicegerent, assembled here on their individual and personal responsibility, to declare their 'Resolutions of Right, and to pass their 'Non-Importation Acts,' one of the most distinguished among them, in the course of his fervid eloquence, prophetically exclaimed that, 'he could hear in the atmosphere the clangor of arms at the North,' and forthwith came the news of the strife at Lexington, and the battle of Bunker Hill. The sound from the North then was the sound of men daring to be free and struggling against oppression. Then and thus was this hall made glorious to liberty, and sacred to memory. (*Applause.*) Sir! when a similar sound from the North shall be heard in this hall again—and I fancy that even now I hear it—that sound will not be the thunder wave of freemen fiercely warring for liberty and human right, but it will be the muffled tread of agrarian legions marching down upon the scattered forces of conservatism:—it will be the charge of the majority-rule against the minority-right:—the remorseless onslaught of numerical power to crush out constitutional principle. And, in view of this hour, and this contingency, I give you—

"The Alumni of William and Mary! May they in the future, as in the past, be animated by the patriot spirit, and the genius of Liberty that inhabits this hall!" (*Drunk standing.*)

ART. VI.—MISSOURI, THE GREAT SOUTHERN VINEYARD.*

NOTWITHSTANDING the true principles of grape culture are so little understood by the community at large, no department of agriculture has been more carefully investigated, more distinctly defined, and reduced to scientific principles. Since Virgil wrote his masterly treatise upon the habits and cultivation of the vine, the principles which should govern its culture have been within the reach of all who would investigate the structure of this plant, and learn the soil and climate adapted to its perfect development. And, indeed, it could scarcely be otherwise, as the vine has occupied so prominent a position in the husbandry of almost all the enlightened nations of ancient and modern times

Since Noah planted a vineyard, the vine has followed the progress of husbandry and civilization throughout India, Arabia, Palestine, and Southern Europe. It holds an important place in the history of those seats of ancient civilization and progress. The "vine-clad hill" occupied a conspicuous position in every landscape, and the juice of the grape had its place at the social board and ruled the joys of the banquet hall. While it held so important a position among the nations, its value led the ablest minds to investigate its habits and

* The vast importance of this subject, induced me to make the facts showing the adaptation of the soil and climate to the culture of the grape. The results of these investigations are most

—*examination of*

deduce the best modes of culture from the experience of the many engaged in the pleasant pursuit. Solomon investigated the properties of the vine, and Virgil gave so excellent a treatise upon its habits and culture, that the investigations and experience of the last two thousand years have added but little to the knowledge then possessed.

Since then the habits of the vine, and the modes of culture best adapted to it, have been so carefully determined, and so thoroughly established by the experience of the last four thousand years, it only remains for the cultivators of our times to investigate the modes of culture so long and so successfully practised in India and the countries bordering upon the Mediterranean; to inquire how far the varieties there cultivated, and the culture there adapted, will succeed in other localities; to determine whether some new varieties may not succeed better in other climates and soils; and what modifications of culture will secure the highest degree of success in the various soils and climates to which we would introduce the vine.

It is obvious that the success of the grape depends upon the mutual adaptation of both soil and climate. In places where the soil has all the requisite properties, the climate may be such as to prevent full success; as in many parts of New-England, where the climate is too cold, and in England, where it is too moist. In many localities in Southern Europe, the soil is such as to prevent the full success of the vine, though the climate is all that could be desired.

Soil.—According to Virgil* and the best authors who have followed him, the soil should be *warm, light, dry, and rich in alkalis and alkaline earths*, especially *potash, soda, lime, and magnesia*. The best vines have been grown upon soils of this description; and when any of these qualities have been wanting, the most skilful vine-growers have supplied the deficiency by artificial means. Hence Virgil directs to place "porous stones and rough shells" in the trenches—the stones and shells to loosen the soil and perfect the drainage, the shells to supply the deficit of lime.

The vine has ever succeeded the best, other things being equal, in a calcareous soil. The best vineyards upon the Rhine, the Ohio, and the Missouri, are upon soils rich in lime; and, according to D'Orbigny, the wines from such vineyards in France are "more lively and spirituous."

* Geor., lib. ii., lines 217-221 and 302—"Optima patri arce solo."

† The great vine at Windsor Park was planted fifty years ago. "In 1850," says Prof. Lindley, "it produced 2,000 large bunches of magnificent grapes, filled a house 138 feet long and 18 wide, and had a stem two feet nine inches in circumference. The border in which it grows is warm, light, dry, and shallow."

The chemical composition of a plant also indicates the mineral ingredients of the soil for its perfect development. The following table, *Agricultural Chemistry*, contains the composition of grapes grown on five different soils. The result conclusively shows what mineral substances are demanded for the perfection of the vine :

	By Leibfau.	By Weinheimer.	Primary Rocks Grates	Mountain
Potash.....	17.32	25.24	34.13	1
Soda.....	28.50	2.74	8.03	1
Lime.....	29.75	40.75	29.67	1
Magnesia.....	9.78	7.49	4.66	1
Oxide of Iron.....	4.12	1.62	0.16	1
Phosphoric Acid.....	5.20	18.89	16.35	1
Sulphuric Acid.....	1.96	2.88	2.16	1
Chlorine.....	1.82	0.63	0.50	1
Silica.....	1.55		1.45	1
Total.....	100.	100.	100.11	1
Percentage of Ash in dry twigs.....	2.835	2.689	2.525	1

These analyses show that *potash, soda, lime, phosphoric acid*, enter largely into the composition of the vine, and that grapes will succeed best on soils rich in these materials. The other ingredients are such as are found in nearly all soils, and may be left out of our consideration.

It is a well-established principle of vegetable physiology that *lime* may supply the place of *soda* and *potash* in some plants. The following analyses of localities show this to be true of the vine also.

Alkalies.....	I. 45.82.....
Lime.....	29.95.....

If, therefore, soda and potash be deficient in the soil, these places may be partially supplied by lime, in sufficient quantities.

Climate.—The success of the grape on the shores of the Mediterranean, show their adaptation to a climate in which the winters are short and mild, and the summers temperate and equable. In the Ionian Islands,

grape attains great perfection, it is never exposed to pinching cold or burning heat, or to any very sudden changes from one to the other. But the great profusion and the excellence of the grapes in India, at Candahar and Cabul, "the sunny home of the grape," indicate an ability to reach perfection in spite of sudden changes from extreme cold to burning heat. "In no part of the world," says Lindley, "are the grapes more delicious than in Candahar and Cabul;" and yet the traveller speaks of the "*bitter cold wind and blazing fires at night*," and the "*burning sun by day*," in March, and the sun's heat at 140° in May, where the grapes ripen as early as June.

We may conclude then that the grape will, under favorable circumstances, reach the greatest perfection, though exposed to sudden changes and extremes of heat and cold.

Having ascertained the conditions of soil and climate best adapted to the successful culture of the vine, it has been my aim to determine how far these conditions are fulfilled in Missouri; to what extent and with what success the vine may be cultivated in our State, and the advantages to be derived from its cultivation.

In order to secure the most accurate data for our conclusions, our investigations have been directed to the following subjects:

1. The characters and habits of all our native vines, and the soils on which they succeed best, have been carefully noted.

2. Five persons* have been appointed to make meteorological observations: one at Springfield in the southwest, one at Cape Girardeau in the southeast, one at Palmyra in the northeast, one at St. Joseph in the northwest, and one at Columbia in the centre, in the valley of the Missouri river. These observers have been supplied with the very best instruments, and they have made and recorded their observations according to the plan adopted by the Smithsonian Institution.

3. The experience of our most successful vine-growers has been collected, and the results carefully compared with the conclusions derived from our examinations of the climate, soils, and wild vines of the State.

4. The soils of the State have been carefully observed, and the varieties collected and committed to a most skilful chemist for full and accurate analyses.

* It gives me great pleasure to bear testimony to the disinterested labors of those who have so faithfully observed and recorded the meteorological phenomena at the stations above named. Our State will be under many obligations to the Rev. G. P. Comings, of St. Paul's College, Palmyra; Rev. James Knoud, of St. Vincent's College, Cape Girardeau; J. A. Stephens, Esq., of Springfield; E. B. Neely, A. M., of the St. Joseph High School; and Miss M. B. Hill, at Columbia, who have made the observations at their several localities.

Native Grapes.—The growth and fruit of our native vines give us most important indications of the adaptation of our soil and climate to the cultivation of the grape. The following species have been observed, and the growth, habits, and fruit of each variety, have been carefully examined.

1. *VITIS LABRUSCA*, Linn. *Fox Grape of the Northern States.*

This vine is abundant in all parts of the State. It attains to a very large size* in our rich alluvial bottoms and on our best upland soils; but the vines of a smaller size, which grow upon the dry ridges, on the declivities of the bluffs (especially those of the Magnesia Limestone), and on the talus of the debris at their bases, exhibits a healthy, firm growth, and produce an abundance of fine fruit. The grapes found in these localities are larger, and the pulp is more juicy and palatable.

Many well-known and excellent varieties of grape now in cultivation were derived from this species. The *Isabella*, *Catawba*, *Schuykill*, and *Bland's*, are the most esteemed.

2. *VITUS ÆSTIVALIS*, Michx. *Summer Grape.*

This, like the preceding, is found in all parts of the State, and is doubtless the largest of all our vines. It is one of the most striking objects in our magnificent forests. While the stem, like a huge cable, hangs suspended from the limbs of the largest trees, the branches, clothed in rich foliage, and often loaded with fruit, hang in graceful festoons over the highest boughs. But the vines growing on the thin soils of our limestone ridges and bluffs, and on the loose debris at their bases, where they are more exposed to the air and the sun, produce a greater abundance of the very best fruit.

3. *VITIS CORDIFOLIA*, Michx. *Winter or Frost Grape.*

This vine is widely diffused through the State; but it is not so large as the Fox or the Summer Grape. Its fruit is small and acerb.

4. *VITUS RIPARIA*, Michx. *River Grape.*

This grape is partial to the alluvial soils along the margins of our streams. It grows to a large size.

5. *VITIS VULPINA*, Linn. { *Muscadine of the West, and Fox Grape,*
according to Elliott, of the Southeastern States.

It is most abundant in the southern part of the State. It grows very large and produces abundantly. Its fruit is very much esteemed. The cultivated *Scuppernon Grape* is a variety from this species.

6. *VITIS BIPINNATA*, Michx.

This plant was observed in Cape Girardeau and Pemiscot counties.

7. *VITIS INDIVISA*, Willd.

This vine abounds in the central and western counties.

From this list it will be seen that Missouri possesses all the native grapes of our country save one, the *Vitis Caribæa*? (D. C.) of California. The vines are so abundant and so large as to form an important and conspicuous part in every copse

* This vine often attains to a diameter of 10 inches, ascends the loftiest trees, and spreads its branches over their highest boughs.

and thicket throughout the entire State. They are everywhere present, lending grace and beauty to every landscape, and indicating with prophetic certainty that the day is not far distant when the purple vineyards will cover our hills, and the songs of the vine-dresser will fill the land with joy, the generous juice of the grape will improve our moral, intellectual, and physical powers.

*Experience of our Vine-Dressers.**—Several vine-dressers in our State have been engaged in the cultivation of the grape during the last twelve or fourteen years. Their success has been fully equal to their expectations, and they are full of high hopes of the most useful and profitable results, even of *entire and permanent success*. Their experience in cultivating the vine has led them to the same conclusion that we have deduced from our scientific examinations of the soil, climate, and native vines, viz.: *that the vine can be cultivated with entire success in favorable localities in all parts of the State.*

It should be borne in mind that these results have been derived mostly from vineyards in the valleys of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, which are not, by far, the most favorable localities in the State; for the "mildew" and the "rot," the most formidable obstacles they have had to contend with, may be partially or entirely obviated in localities where the atmosphere and soil are not so densely charged with moisture.

"The rot," says one of our most successful vine-dressers, Mr. Haas, "attacks the berries when the soil is in a wet condition in July and August." "It is most severe on the low and wet parts of the vineyard."

Mr. Husmann says: "The principal cause, all are agreed, is an excess of moisture about the roots, and damp, moist weather."

Now the larger part of our vineyards are located upon a *stiff, cold, clayey subsoil*, which, of necessity, retains the excess of moisture, and produces the injurious results. This evil may be obviated by thorough draining, or what is better, by selecting some of the millions of acres in the southern part of the State, where the soil is *warmer and lighter and richer* in the ingredients most favorable to the vine, and where the subsoil is so porous as to permit a free passage to the excess of moisture.

The mildew appears in June, and all agree that it is caused by "*foggy, damp, and hot weather after rains.*" Now our

* I am indebted to Mr. William Haas, of Boonville, Mr. George Husmann, of Hermann, Mr. Frederic M. nich, of Martha'sville, and Mr. Joseph Stuby, of Hamburg, for valuable information respecting the cultivation of grapes in our State.

observations prove that hot, damp weather, mists, is much more prevalent in the valleys and the Mississippi than on the table-lands to

The characters of the two regions under most conclusively that the excess of moisture must be considerable and permanent. The val with numerous and extensive lakes, sloughs rank growth and vast extent, besides the bro flow through them; while the table-lands are of lakes and ponds, and but partially covered and much less vigorous growth of timber; as occupy an elevation several hundred feet above

No fears, therefore, need be entertained that will prevent the entire success of vine cult should our atmosphere even continue as mo But we may expect much improvement in this fully established by past experience that the country, and the opening of a soil to cultura amount of rain and moisture in the atmospher

Notwithstanding the many difficulties our v had to contend with, and notwithstanding sor yards are not, to say the least, in the most fav in the State, their success has been very flatte

The vineyards of Boonville have yielded, th about six thousand gallons, worth twelve t Five acres gave a clear profit of two thousand hundred dollars per acre. Mr. Haas made o hundred and fifty gallons from three acres.

The vintage of Hermann was about one h gallons, from less than two hundred acres. A gallon—which is much less than the value—it of at least four hundred dollars per acre, or of dollars on the two hundred acres in cultivation

One small vineyard at Hamburg, Mr. yielded over one thousand gallons per acre.

The entire cost of vineyards, preparing the training the vines until they come into bear two hundred to three hundred dollars per acre.

Annual cost of cultivation after....	\$50 to \$60
Ten per cent. on first cost	20 to 30
Total expense for each year.....	70 to 90

so that an income of one hundred dollars per acre is sufficient to pay the interest on the fi expense of cultivation.

Judging from the statistics before me, I would suppose all our vineyards have yielded an average of at least two hundred and fifty gallons per acre since 1849, which, at an average price per gallon of one dollar and sixty cents, would give an annual income of four hundred dollars, and a yearly profit of three hundred dollars per acre. So that the vine-dresser, even in the poorest seasons, can scarcely fail of a handsome profit, while in good years his gains will far surpass those derived from any other department of husbandry. But the profits of our most successful cultivators have been much greater. Mr. Pæschel, of Hermann, is said to have made over four hundred gallons per acre for the last ten years, and an annual profit of more than five hundred dollars for each acre.

Such are the favorable results legitimately derived from the experience of our vine-dressers in their early efforts in a new country, with a soil and climate unknown to the cultivators of the grape. All must admit that they are most satisfactory. Even if our climate does not become more dry, if no more improvements are made in the modes of culture, and if no more favorable localities are obtained, grape culture must increase very rapidly, and become an important element in our agricultural and commercial interests.

Soil.—Nearly all the soils of Missouri possess all the ingredients necessary to the complete development of the vine; but some of them are too *heavy, wet, and cold*, unless improved by artificial means. This is true to some extent of those on the bluffs of the Mississippi and Missouri, where nearly all the vineyards of our State are located. Still they produce an abundance of large native grapes, on vines of the *Vitis labrusca*, and other species.

The character of this variety of soil is indicated by the analysis made of a specimen taken from the bluff of Boone county. It has already been shown that it covers large areas in the region under consideration. The superior native grapes growing upon this soil, and the success of the vineyards above named, prove its adaptation to the vine. Its greatest defect is a capacity to hold and retain an excess of water, which must be remedied by trenching, and a proper admixture of vegetable matter, sand, pebbles and broken rocks.

But the action of the elements upon the rocks of the *Magnesian Limestone Series*, has prepared a soil, as if by design, to invite the vine-dresser to possess and cultivate it.

The following analysis shows the properties of this variety of soil:

Analysis of a Magnesian Limestone Soil from the Southern Bluffs of Callaway County, by Dr. Lutton.—Soil No. 14.

Water expelled by heating to 150° C	1.1700	Manganese	a trace.
Organic matter and water not driven off at 150° C	9.6299	Lime	8.0720
Silica, etc, insoluble in hydrochloric acid	54.2600	Magnesia	1.6609
Soluble silica	0.1639	Potash	1.6373
Alumina	10.8588	Soda	0.3443
Peroxyde of Iron	2.5186	Carbonic acid	10.1111
		Sulphuric acid	0.0685
		Phosphoric acid	0.0050
		Chlorine	0.0053
Total			100.5869

This soil is all that could be desired for the culture of the grape. It contains an abundance of all the mineral substances which enter into the composition of the vine, as shown above by its analysis. While it is *warm, light, and dry*, it contains large quantities of *magnesia* and *vegetable matter*, or *humus*, giving it great capacity for absorbing and retaining a sufficient quantity of moisture, even in the droughts of summer.

This is a fair representative of the soils on the magnesian limestone ridges and slopes throughout Central and Southern Missouri. These slopes and ridges occupy millions of acres, now deemed worthless, which are, in fact, by far the most valuable lands in this part of the State for the cultivation of the grape. Especially is this true of those located upon the southern highlands, away from the vapors and sudden changes of our large rivers and their broad valleys.

The magnesian limestone series, from which this soil is derived, occupies a large part of the poor portions of the country on the Southwestern Branch. The magnesian limestones, sandstones, porous chert, and the thin beds of reddish brown marly clays that usually overlie the limestones, all combine to form a soil *light, dry, warm* and *rich* in all the elements needed for the grape, as shown by the foregoing analysis. In many places this soil is underlaid with a sufficient quantity of pebbles and fragments of porous chert to constitute a most thorough system of drainage, while in others the fragments of chert are disseminated through the soil in such quantities as to injure it somewhat for ordinary cultivation, but which gives precisely the preparation so highly recommended by Virgil and late authors, and the best cultivators of the grape.

It is true that the native vines do not grow so large and sappy in this, as in the deep, damp soils of the State; but they are, nevertheless, strong and healthy, and produce finer clusters of larger and better grapes. This improvement was particularly observed in the Muscadine, the Northern Fox, and the *Summer Grapes*.

This variety of soil also extends over other portions of the State. It occupies large portions of nearly all the highlands in Southern Missouri, the counties on both sides of the Osage, and over the southern part of Boone, Callaway, Montgomery, and Warren, on the north side of the Missouri, occupying, in all, an area of some 15,000,000 acres. Of these, at least 5,000,000 acres might be selected in the most desirable localities, much of it on the line of the Southwestern Branch, and devoted to vineyards, without encroaching upon the lands most desirable for other departments of agriculture. And, so far as we can judge from the characteristics of soil and climate, and the indications of the native vines, these 5,000,000 acres in the highlands of Southern Missouri present rare inducements to the vine-dresser—such a combination of favorable circumstances as will not fail to attract the attention of those who would engage in this most pleasant and profitable department of husbandry. And so important will be the results, that every effort should be put forth to hasten the time when these 5,000,000* acres shall be covered with flourishing vineyards; giving profitable employment to 2,000,000 people; yielding more than 1,000,000,000 gallons of wine; and an annual profit, at the lowest estimate, of \$500,000,000. And, what is still more important, the pure nourishing juice of the grape would take the place of the vile, maddening compounds used in the names of wine and brandy; drunkenness would give place to sobriety; and our people, nourished by the grape, and its pure wines, would become as robust and hardy as they are now daring and indomitable.

Natural Terraces.—The bluffs of the numerous streams in Southern Missouri usually slope back into knobs and ridges, which are frequently surrounded by numerous natural terraces, so regular and uniform that they appear like the work of human hands. These terraces are produced by the decomposition of the strata of magnesian limestones, which form the bluffs. Their height varies from one to six feet, and the width of the top from two to twelve, according to the angle of the slope and the height of the terrace. Their surfaces are nearly level, and are usually covered with a light, warm, and rich soil, containing fragments of chert and the decomposing limestone, all wonderfully prepared by nature for the planting of vineyards. These terraces generally surround high,

* France has about 5,000,000 acres in vineyards. They yield 925,000,000 gallons of wine, besides the 95,000,000 gallons distilled into brandy, and give profitable employment to 2,000,000 people, mostly women and children.

open ridges and knobs, exposed to the free circulation of the dry atmosphere of the region under consideration.

We have, as yet, observed but one objection to their use for vineyards. In some places the soil does not appear to be sufficiently deep to secure the vine against the effects of droughts. But, as an offset to the want of depth, it always contains large proportions of carbonate of magnesia and humus, which give it great capacity for absorbing and retaining moisture, as these substances possess this capacity to a greater degree than any of the other ingredients of our soils. And, besides, the thinnest soils on these terraces sustain a vigorous growth of prairie grasses, flowers, shrubs, and vines, which produce the finest quality of grapes in great profusion.

Caves.—There are numerous spacious caves in all parts of this interesting country. The temperature of those measured, ranges between 50° and 60° F. Many of them would make most excellent wine-cellars, as their temperature is sufficiently low and uniform to prevent that acidity to which the wines of all temperate latitudes are predisposed.

These facts, respecting the *native vines*, the *climate*, the *experience of our vine-growers*, and the *soil*, clearly prove the capacity of Missouri to become the great vine-growing region of our continent. They should encourage those noble spirits who have so faithfully devoted their labor and their money to promote this important department of husbandry in our midst; for the time is not far distant when the "poor flint ridges" and terraced slopes of Southern Missouri will be as valuable for vineyards, as some of them are now for their rich mineral deposits; when the vineyards of Pulaski and La Cede will compete in golden profits with the hemp farms of Lafayette and Platte; and the vine-clad hills of the beautiful Meramec and the Gasconade will vie in wealth with the leaden veins of Potosi and Granby.

It will thus be seen that even the poorest soils and those in the most broken parts of this country will become very valuable for the culture of the grape. And I might add that their value for vineyards will increase in about the same ratio as their fitness for the other departments of husbandry decreases.

ART. VIII.—ON THE CLIMATE AND FEVERS OF THE SOUTHWESTERN,
SOUTHERN ATLANTIC, AND GULF STATES.*

UNDER the impression that it is the duty of every physician to record, in some form or other, the result of his experience, we have occasionally, for the last seven or eight years, contributed through the Southern medical press, brief notices of the climate and diseases of particular localities and regions. Of some of these crude attempts at authorship, not only the substance, but frequently the language, without further notice or acknowledgment, will be found scattered through the following pages. In addition to this, it will also be observed, that to enable us to illustrate some of our peculiar climatic features, we have been compelled to draw largely on the labors of others; but in every instance we hope it will be found that we have done it so in an acceptable manner. With these brief declarations, we will now proceed, after first defining our geographical limits, and giving their general geological outline, to present as succinct but clear a view of particular sections and localities as the nature of our undertaking and materials will justify.

In the following remarks we comprehend, as constituting the Southwestern, Southern Atlantic, and Gulf States, all that region of country extending from near the Tropic of Cancer, to a little above the thirty-sixth parallel of north latitude, and lying entirely between the first and twenty-fourth degrees of west longitude. The whole of this great region, with its eastern, southern, and southwestern limits resting on the Atlantic ocean and Gulf of Mexico, and lying within the mountain ranges and highlands presently to be briefly sketched, if not naturally, may, for the purpose of description, be divided into the lower or level, the middle or undulating, and the upper or mountainous districts. The level and undulating zones, with an average elevation above the Atlantic ocean and Gulf of not more than four hundred feet, are composed *geologically* of the tertiary and cretaceous formations, to which succeed, in the mountainous regions, the metamorphic, carboniferous, and primitive.†

Believing that the relations existing between this region, the Gulf of Mexico, and Atlantic ocean, are of such a character, that we can neither properly understand nor fully appreciate the climate and endemic influences of the former, without at least some knowledge of the principal *currents and temperature* of the two latter; we will therefore upon these subjects, at present merely observe, that a portion of the great western equatorial current, after striking against the eastern projection of South America, turns to the north, and passing through the Caribbean sea, enters from one of the *hottest*

* A corrected copy of this essay which appeared in the *New-Orleans Medical News* and the *Memphis Medical Recorder*, has been furnished for our pages by the able author, Dr. J. C. Harris, of Wetumpka, Alabama.

† The geographical, topographical and geological descriptions contained in the following pages, besides the sources mentioned in the text, have been chiefly condensed from Colton's Atlas, Woodbridge's Geography, and the works of Drs. Weyg and Drake.

regions on the globe, through the Straits of Yucata Mexico; where, after mingling with its waters, and a kind of circuit, flows out to the northeast, through Florida, at the rate of four or five miles an hour, as the celebrated *Gulf-stream*. As the waters of the northern Gulf are known to be cooled by the approach of winds, and the influx of river currents from higher the same principle the temperature of its southern nations must be greatly increased by the unceasing intrusions into the Straits of Yucatan of a large amount of warm water. We think more than probable, under the influence of a wind, in passing out east, around the Cape of Florida to a considerable extent, the same modifying influence on Georgia and the Carolinas that the Gulf is known to exert under similar circumstances, on the more Southern States and Valley.*

MOUNTAIN RANGES.

Commencing on the east, nearly under the thirty-north latitude, and perhaps not more than one hundred miles from the seashore, a continuation of the Appalachian under the name of Blue Ridge, leaves the State of Virginia, after passing around through the Carolinas and Georgia in a westerly direction, parallel with the ocean, and rises from six hundred to three thousand feet above its level. In North Alabama it sinks down north of the thirty-north latitude, nothing more than an elevated range of hills, where it approaches the Mississippi in the direction of the mountains.

Turning now to the west, and commencing under the fourth meridian and twenty-eighth parallel, a spur of the Madre, proceeding from the junction of the Rio Grande, enters Texas at the sources of the Rio Colorado, continuing in this direction, crosses the Colorado below the mouth of the San Saba, and is finally lost in the fertile lands of the Brazos. To the northeast of this range, with a supposed elevation of from fifteen to twenty thousand feet, lie the table-lands of Texas. Near the eastern base of this range, and of which they are nothing more than a rugged continuation, commence the Ozark mountains, which, after sending a few spurs to northwestern Louisiana, cross the upper State of Arkansas, and terminate near the Missouri. At the eastern base of this range, the distance across to the Cumberland mountain, an outlier of the Appalachian, on the east side of the Mississippi, is not more than twenty miles. Through this great gorge, the Mississippi river, a lit

* It appears that Dr. Forry, (climate of the United States, pages 8 and 9) supposes the influence of the Gulf stream was nearly altogether expended in warming the North Cape, the western coast of Europe.

the twelfth meridian, enters the central and northern portion of the region we have under consideration, and from which point, in its general course as far down as the mouth of Red river, it gradually inclines to the southwest, thence southeast to its confluence, nearly under the same meridian.

Standing on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, near the mouth of this great Father of Waters, with the face turned to the north, all that portion of this extended region lying to the southeast and northeast of this line will be recognized as the eastern portion; that to the southwest and northwest as the western.

The principal rivers, with their tributaries, washing the eastern section, commencing on the east, are the Cape Fear, Pedee, Santee, Savannah, Ogeechee, Altamaha, St. Mary's, St. John's, Suwanee, Appalachicola, Alabama, Mobile, Tombigbee, Pearl, and Yazoo; all of which, excepting the St. Mary's, St. John's, and Suwanee, have their sources either within the Appalachian range, or some one of the numerous outliers, and discharge their waters into the Atlantic Ocean, the Gulf of Mexico, or the Mississippi river. The St. Mary's and Suwanee rivers of Georgia and Florida have a common source in the Okefenokee swamp; the St. John's in an immense swamp in Orange county, Florida.

Those on the west, with their tributaries, commencing on the southwest and extending around to the northwest, are the Rio Grande, Necees, San Antonio, Colorado, Brazos, Trinity, Sabine, Red, Wachita, Arkansas and White. Of these rivers the Rio Grande, the Red, and Arkansas, have their sources within the Rocky mountains; the Necees, San Antonio, Colorado, and Brazos, among the spurs of the Sierra Madre, and the Trinity, Wachita, and White, from the table-lands of Texas and spurs of the Ozark mountains; and they all discharge their waters into the Mississippi and Gulf of Mexico, either directly, or through large bays and estuaries.

SUBDIVISIONS.

THE CAROLINAS and GEORGIA are naturally divided into three strongly-marked regions: the lower, the middle, and upper. The first two of these lie on the great Atlantic plain. The lower country, extending from sixty to ninety miles from the sea-shore, is nearly a dead level, traversed with sluggish streams, and filled with innumerable ponds and marshes. The soil is scanty and poor, excepting along the margins of the streams, where it is frequently rich. Back of the flat country, and extending to the lower falls of all the principal streams, is a belt of from forty to sixty miles in width, of moderately uneven surface and sandy soil. The low grounds between the sand hills of this zone are suitable for agriculture and pasturage; but with these exceptions, the country is scarcely worth cultivation. The natural growth of both of these districts is almost universally black-jack and pitch-pine. Beyond this region, and above the falls, commences a beautiful country of hill and dale, and fine flowing streams of pure

water. The whole of this region may be regarded table-land, gradually rising to where the Appalachians through these States. This up country has generally fertile soil, of a red color, mixed, in places, with a deep producing cotton, Indian corn, wheat, and other in great abundance. Its principal forest trees are the di of oak, pine, and hickory.

The southern coasts of these States are skirted by a separated from the main land by narrow channels of islands, like the neighboring continent, are low and the coasts of South Carolina and Georgia are covered live oak, pine and palmettoes.

ALABAMA.—All that portion of this State lying commencing at Columbus, Georgia, on the Chattahoochee latitude $32^{\circ} 25'$, and running south-southwest by Wetumpka, Centerville on the Cahawba, Tuscaloosa on the river, and terminating at or near Columbus on the Mississippi, in latitude $33^{\circ} 30'$, with its extreme south on the Bay of Mobile and Gulf of Mexico, and extending several degrees of longitude and parallels of latitude, according to descriptions, be considered as constituting a proper.

The southern portion of this region bordering Mexico, for the space of fifty or sixty miles, is low shores of Mobile Bay being skirted with salt marsh swamps; beyond this, the banks and country become elevated and are covered with pine forests. The western section of the State, off the water courses, may be a rolling uplands and prairies, and which, for the purpose, may be divided into the four following natural divisions, the *alluvial*, the *canebrake*, *prairie* and *pine woods*. The lying along the rivers and creeks, and varying in width from a few yards to several miles, and in some places subject to overflow in the first settlement of the country, covered with cane, interspersed with the palmetto, cypress, and second and third being identical in geological composition constitute but one variety, and extend over a great number of counties of Sumpter, Green, Marengo, Perry, Lowndes, Montgomery, Macon, and the southern part, with, perhaps, the best specimens in Green and Marengo of this region, consisting of yellow, pulverable limestone with remains of animals and plants, and resting on rotten limestone, is extremely fertile, and, although little diversity of surface, is occasionally broken into knolls,* as may be seen between Arcola and Demopolis, Livingston and Sumpterville. The summits of the hills are sometimes ornamented with cedars, but more frequently

* Taomey's 1st Geological Report, page 124.

quite bare, or covered with but a scanty vegetation. Even where the surface is but slightly undulating, bald spots occur, where the rocks come up to the surface, and are exposed to view; but perhaps the most remarkable feature of this section is the extraordinary power of its soil to imbibe moisture from the atmosphere. The effects of this property, continues the same authority,* is so strikingly illustrated in the uncleared parts of the canebrakes, that one can scarcely satisfy himself that he is not standing on the low grounds of some great river.

The Pine Woods.—This region, the soil of which is of a light sandy nature, abounds in springs of pure, clear soft water, and, as a general rule, is poor and unproductive. Notwithstanding, the pine flats of Autauga county, during the spring and early summer, contain considerable surface water, perhaps for the want of a sufficient supply of organic materials they are generally healthy.

To the north and northeast of the regions here described, the face of the country becomes more broken and somewhat mountainous, the Appalachian range terminating in the northwestern section of the State by sinking down into nothing more than a range of elevated hills. The natural growths of the northern and middle sections is oak, hickory, chestnut and pine. Cotton is the staple production of the State, but Indian corn, rice, wheat, and other grains, are produced.

Geological Outline.—To the *alluvial* and *post-pliocene* deposits around the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, succeed the tertiary and cretaceous formations; of these the tertiary overlaps the southern edge of the cretaceous in its entire extent across the State, "extending from the lower part of Sumpter, on the west, crossing the Alabama river near the mouth of Dixon's creek, and thence across to a point above Fort Gaines, on the Chattahoochee. From this the cretaceous extends up to the lower falls of all the principal streams,"† meeting on the west the coal-fields of the Cahawba and Coosa, and on the east the primitive formations, extending down from the mountain spurs.

The principal rivers of South Alabama are the Mobile, the Alabama, and their tributaries, the Tombigbee, the Cahawba, the Tallapoosa and the Coosa, the two latter forming the Alabama. The Mobile, about fifty miles above the city of Mobile, is formed by the union of the Tombigbee and Alabama, which latter is also a considerable stream, and is navigable for vessels drawing from five to six feet of water to Claiborne, sixty miles above its junction; and one hundred and fifty miles higher up, to the mouth of the Cahawba, it has four or five feet of water; and from thence to the junction of the Tallapoosa and Coosa, and up the latter to Wetumpka, it is navigable for light-draught steamboats, with few exceptions, at all seasons of the year. The Tombigbee is navigable for schooners one hundred and twenty miles to St. Stephen's, and for steamboats, to

* Tuomey's 1st Geological Report, page 126.

† *Ibid.*, 144.

Columbus, Mississippi. Of this stream the Black Warrior forms a large tributary, and is navigable to Tuscaloosa. The southwestern portion is drained by the Coneche; and the eastern by the Chattahoochee river. The Alabama river, in flowing down from the high lands through an alluvial valley, generally presents us with a bluff on one side and a low bottom, subject to inundation, on the other. In many places the bottoms are from two to three miles wide, and before being cleared up, were covered with a forest of cypress, sweet gum, magnolia, and live oak.

Mobile, the chief commercial emporium of the State, is situated on the west bank of the Mobile river, at its entrance into Mobile bay, in lat. $30^{\circ} 40'$ north, long. 13° west. It is laid out on a beautiful and extended plain, elevated some ten or twelve feet above the highest tides, and extending back some six or seven miles to the commencement of the pine woods and tertiary plain. "Much of its site, which is somewhat terraced like the river bottoms of the interior of the great valley, is sandy, with beds of clay beneath, which prevent the rains from sinking into the earth, and lead to the formation of swales, or marshy grounds, that require ditching before they can be cultivated." To the south, adjoining the city, there is a cypress swamp, with its margin resting on an immense deposit of *silt* and drift-wood, and which presents a foul and suspicious appearance. On the upper and north side of the city, and constituting to some extent its boundary, is a small bayou called One-Mile creek, and beyond it another, named Three-Mile creek, designations which indicate their distance from the city. On each side of and between these sluggish streams, there are swamps overshadowed with cypress, sweet gum, magnolia, and other shrubs, common in such localities of the south; these swamps never become dry even to the depth of two inches below the surface.

"In front of the city the bay abounds in islets and beds of alluvion, enveloping drift-wood, and covered with a heavy growth of reed grass, and other aquatic and sub-aquatic plants."

From the foregoing description, as might be expected, Mobile, besides being annually scourged with intermittent and remittent fevers of every type and grade of violence, has also experienced many yellow fever epidemics.

In ascending the Mobile river and its tributaries, we find standing amid the tertiary and cretaceous formations, St. Stephen's, on the Tombigbee; Tuscaloosa, on the Black Warrior; Claiborne, Cahawba, Selma and Montgomery, on the Alabama; and Wetumpka, on the Coosa.

Cahawba.—This town, once the capital of the State, stands on the west bank of the Alabama river, immediately below the confluence of the Cahawba, in latitude $32^{\circ} 20'$ north, longitude $10^{\circ} 10'$ west. During high tide, the Alabama river overflows the entire town. To the northwest, at no great distance, extending across from one river to the other, is a considerable swamp. At present it is the seat of justice for Dallas county, and has never contained, since shortly after the removal of the capital to Tuscaloosa, in 1825, more than seven or eight inhabitants.

From the first settlement of this country, this town has been subject to violent and often fatal intermittent and remittent fevers; and yellow fever, when the population reached about three thousand, is reported by Dr. Heustis to have prevailed there during the fall of 1821, and again in 1822, in an epidemic form;* but as there are some who pretend to doubt the correctness of the doctor's diagnosis, it may not be amiss to state that he speaks† of the prevalence, in 1809, of yellow fever under his care, among the troops stationed at Terre aux Bœuffs, and in 1812, of a large portion of three companies of the first regiment of artillery, stationed also under his care at the barracks in New-Orleans, dying of yellow fever; hence we are irresistibly driven to the conclusion that he was not mistaken in the type of the fever that prevailed here during the above mentioned period, and that it was nothing other than true, genuine and unmistakable yellow fever.

Selma.—This city stands on an elevated sandy plain, on the [right] west bank of the Alabama river, ten miles above Cahawba, and, on account of existing and anticipated railroad facilities, has received, within the last three or four years, an accession of perhaps more than two thousand inhabitants, and has become a point of considerable importance. Notwithstanding the plain on which the city stands is free from ponds, there is, to the north and east, at no great distance, quite an extensive swamp.

It appears from a comparison of all the information that Dr. Drake was able to collect at this place and Cahawba, concerning autumnal fever,‡ that he was brought to the conclusion, that the disease prevails less here than there, which might be expected, he thinks, from the difference in their topography. It has not been visited by yellow fever. The same authority continues:

"In a late paper by Dr. Harris, on the Medical Topography of South Alabama, I find the following paragraph:

"'In 1824, the yellow fever appeared in Selma, and that section of the country known as the Pleasant Valley, ten or twelve miles north. One case, under Dr. Phillips, terminated fatally on the third day, after black vomit, and several cases under my inspection, on the fifth and seventh days after the same, some in collapse. There was no yellow fever in Mobile at the time.'

"It is remarkable that Dr. Heustis, in his paper on the diseases of Cahawba, is silent on this alleged yellow fever, and that Dr. Lewis, in his Medical History of Alabama, has not adverted to it; and equally remarkable that, in the course of a rigid inquiry, in 1848, into the fevers of that region, not one of its numerous physicians should have mentioned to me what Dr. Harris has since published."

As it is stated in the paper from which the foregoing paragraph was copied by Dr. Drake, that the information it contained was given on the authority of Dr. Edward Gantt, we consider it nothing more than justice to that gentleman to state, that he had previously in

* Observations on the Epidemic Fevers of the Southern States, p. 369.

† Medical Topography and Diseases of Louisiana, pages 89 and 117.

‡ Drake, Principal Diseases of the Valley of North America, p. 106-107.

Philadelphia, as a student of medicine in the office of Dr. Rush, enjoyed opportunities of becoming familiar with the disease, and that he assured the writer he had never since met with, either in Mobile or New-Orleans, better or more clearly-marked cases of yellow fever.

From this period this locality escaped a recurrence of yellow fever until the seasons 1854-'55, when it again made its appearance and prevailed.

Montgomery.—This city, the capital of the State, stands amid the cretaceous formations on a sandy terrace, above high-water mark, on the east bank of the Alabama river, opposite the extreme south-east extremity of a horseshoe bend of the same, in latitude $32^{\circ} 10'$ north, longitude $10^{\circ} 12'$ west. A range of hills, commencing rather abruptly on the southeastern limits of the city, and running around to the east, form a kind of amphitheatre of hill land in its rear, at some points of more than one hundred feet elevation, and giving to the principal part of the immediate plain on which the city stands, a decided inclination in the direction of the river. On the plain to the northeast, there are numerous ponds and marshes, which are thrown into forms more or less elongated and serpentine by oak and pine ridges, or narrow plateaus, which gradually become more elevated and hill-like, but still embosom stagnant and swampy streams.

The upper stratum of this tract is a red sandy loam, with beds of silicious gravel. "To the west-northwest there is a margin of lower and wetter bottom-land, on the upper end of which attempts were once made to build a town, but it proved too insalubrious."*

Since the permanent location of the capital here, in 1847, this city has rapidly increased in population and commercial importance.

Montgomery has been, we believe, from its earliest settlement, infested, to a considerable extent, with all the grades and varieties of intermittent and remittent fevers. In 1853, the yellow fever made its appearance here in a recognized and acknowledged form. It also prevailed the two succeeding years.

Wetumpka.—The towns of East and West Wetumpka, connected by a fine and apparently durable bridge, are situated on both sides of the Coosa river, at the foot of the falls of the same name, and head of steamboat navigation, in latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude $10^{\circ} 15'$ west. These have been, by legislative enactment, erected into and constitute one city, containing upward of twelve hundred inhabitants, several schools, three churches, and the state prison.

The site of the western town is a sandy, level plain, cut and interspersed with an occasional ravine and swale, and terminating rather abruptly at the river bank, in a high bluff. A small portion of this plain in front of the lower part of the town is subject to an occasional inundation. The eastern portion of the city, standing on an elevated, narrow and rather rugged plain, is so completely hemmed

* Drake, *Principal Diseases of the Valley of North America*, p. 387.

In with a range of high hills, extending its whole length, and rising several hundred feet above the level of the river, that at many points there is scarcely space enough between their base and the water's edge for the erection of the necessary business buildings. These hills, composed of a gravelly, dry, micaceous, red loam, sloping back with gentle declivities, and terminating in level tops, surmounted with a forest of pines, chestnut, and scrubby oak, afford most desirable sites for the erection of private residences, and from one of which, to the admirer of the works of nature, the prospect is most enchanting. To the south and southwest, as far as the eye can reach, nothing is to be seen but one extended landscape, interspersed with forests and farm-houses; while at your feet dash and surge the gushing waters of the Coosa. The agitation of these waters in their passage over the falls causes the evolution of a large amount of vapor, which, descending at nightfall in copious showers of dew, gives to the air in the vicinity an unusual, and, at times, an unhealthy degree of dampness.

The river, after entering the limits of the city, runs for the first half-mile in a southwesterly direction, when it passes under the bridge, and then shifts its course more to the southeast; pursuing this direction for about a mile more, it then turns west, and runs in a devious line to its junction with the Tallapoosa.

At low stages of the water, the current of the river above the bridge is thrown almost entirely against the western bank, leaving exposed to the action of the sun, a large portion of vegetable matter. There are also at low stages of the river, among the rocks and shoals, many pools of stagnant water, in which a mass of organic matter is continually undergoing decomposition; one in particular, commencing not far above the bridge, and extending some hundred yards up the river, is a fruitful source of exhalation; a large ravine also extends from the water's edge in the rear of the buildings in Bridge street, nearly up to the market-house, and receives the filth from the greater portion of this part of the city.

There are also other sources of disease of a local character, within the corporation, on both sides of the river, and also within the immediate vicinity, but as they are similar to those already described, and common to many Southern towns and neighborhoods, we will pass them by without any further notice.

Notwithstanding Wetumpka stands on the last outcrop of the cretaceous formations, and has been subject, from its first settlement in 1833, to intermittent and remittent fevers, yellow fever, in an epidemic form, has never prevailed. True, we have, during our residence here, late in the falls of several years, met with occasional cases of remittent fever, not only on the city plot, but also in the low alluvial grounds, four or five miles south, and for eight or ten miles up the Tallapoosa river, of so malignant a type, that, since we have had the opportunity of studying yellow fever in the wards of the Charity Hospital, New-Orleans, we are satisfied were sporadic cases of that disease.

MISSISSIPPI.—The surface of this State has a general slope to the

southwest and south, and its principal rivers, with the exception of a small section to the south, have their courses in the same direction.

The coast, which extends along the Gulf of Mexico for about sixty miles, has a chain of low islands, six or seven miles from the shore. These enclose several bays or sounds, the largest of which are the Pascagoula Sound and Lake Borgne. The southern part of the State, for about one hundred miles from the Gulf of Mexico, is mostly a sandy, level, pine forest, interspersed with cypress swamps, open prairie and inundated marshes, with a few hills of moderate elevation. This region, by cultivation, produces cotton, Indian corn, indigo, sugar, plums, peaches, figs, sour oranges, and grapes. The western border on the Mississippi, for about one hundred and seventy miles in length, by fifty or sixty in breadth, and through which the Yazoo river flows, is an extensive swamp.

The prairie, or Tombigbee section, covering the northeastern part of the State, and extending far down on the Alabama line, is uniformly level, with scarcely a tree, dotted here and there with pools and marshes, and intersected with sluggish streams. The soil of this region is a dark heavy loam, of surpassing fertility, and of the same geological composition as that of the adjoining prairie country of Alabama.

The upper portion of the State, known as the Chickasaw Cession, has a rolling surface, and an open, champaign appearance, being free of undergrowth, and beautifully wooded with oak and hickory. The upland of this section produces abundantly, but the substratum of the country being sandy, they are soon ruined by the heavy rains. The valley lands are much more durable and productive, the soil being heavier and darker; but they are liable to be, and frequently are, submerged, acres at a time, under billows of sand washed from the uplands. Cotton is the staple product.

Jackson.—This city, the capital of the State, we are informed by Dr. S. C. Farrar, stands on the west bank of Pearl river, in lat. $32^{\circ} 20'$ north, long. $13^{\circ} 8'$ west.* Geologically considered, it is near that well-marked boundary which separates the tertiary from the secondary formation, or, more particularly, the cretaceous beds of the latter from the eocene marl of the former. "Between the river and town, to the northeast and southwest, lie extensive low grounds, covered by a dense forest, and subject to annual inundation."

For several years after the first settlement of this locality, it was subject to the most violent grades of intermittent and remittent fevers. Latterly, however, these have become more mild and manageable; but, notwithstanding this change, according to Dr. Farrar,† pneumonia and dysentery frequently exhibit a paroxysmal and strictly periodic type. Tertian intermittents are also sometimes complicated with fixed pains of the head, breast, back, or limbs, so as to personate, with great exactness, a phrensy, pleurisy, hepatitis, or rheumatism—especially if the apyrexias are obscure or imperfect.

WEST TENNESSEE.—Near the sources of the Yazoo river, and on the northern boundary of the State of Mississippi, the Tennessee river approaches within 125 miles of the Mississippi river; here meeting the high lands of northwestern Alabama, it turns almost directly north, and in this direction crosses the State of Tennessee, the western part of Kentucky, and empties into the Ohio river at Paducah, about thirty miles on a straight line from the Mississippi river.

As the watershed of this region is everywhere very near the Tennessee river, much the larger streams of the western district descend westwardly to the Mississippi. Of these the Wolf, the Big Hatchee, Forked Deer, and Obion, are the principal.

The surface of the whole district, every part of which belongs entirely to the cretaceous formation, is either level or undulating, "except near the streams, and between their sources, and those of the tributaries of the Tennessee, where it becomes more elevated and hilly."

As a specimen of the level region, we are informed by Dr. Dashieils, of Jackson, that "the portion known as the Forked Deer Valley, and which extends from the counties of Hardeman and McNairy on the east to the Mississippi on the west, is, along the river, low, swampy, heavily timbered, and subject to annual inundation; and on the recession of the water from these low grounds, after one of these spring overflows, numerous ponds are left partially filled with dead vegetable matter, to be carried off through the summer by the slow process of evaporation."* We are also further informed by this writer, "that the spring season of this region is exceedingly variable, the summer and fall warm and sultry, and the winter moist and cold—the thermometer frequently indicating a variation of thirty degrees in twelve hours."†

Intermittent and remittent fevers of every grade and variety prevail throughout the entire district, occurring some autumns, in certain localities, with considerable violence.

ARKANSAS.—The surface of this State presents great variations in its physical configuration along the Mississippi river, which marks its eastern boundary; and from ninety to one hundred miles inland, the country is low and widely interspersed with lakes and swamps, and, with inconsiderable exceptions, is annually overflowed by the floods of the Mississippi, Arkansas, and St. Francis rivers. Farther west the surface rises, toward the centre of the State becomes moderately hilly, and still further west rises into the Ozark mountains; beyond these the country spreads out into elevated and gradually rising plains, which terminate only with the Rocky mountains. On the margin of all the rivers the soil deposited by the floods over thousands of acres is a rich alluvion, and very productive; back from these it is very sterile, being in some parts, either from scarcity of water or metallic impregnation, unfit for cultivation. Of this State, the principal forest growths are pine, cypress, sycamore, and oak.

* Fenner's Southern Medical Reports, vol 1, page 245.

† *Ibid.*, page 252.

FORT GIBSON.—This post is situated, measuring from the mouth of the Sabine river, about four hundred and thirty miles north of the Gulf of Mexico—

"On the east bank of the Neosho or Grand river, in the Indian Territory, about forty miles west of the western line of the State of Arkansas, 35° 47' north, longitude 18° west. The site of the fort is about three miles from the bank of the Neosho, and three from its mouth and a half to the southwest, toward the Arkansas river, is a large marsh, and as its level varies little from that of the fort the latter is consequently very defective. As the fort was originally a canebrake, the soil partakes, in a very high degree, of what is the language of the country, 'river-bottom land.' It is skirted by an elevated prairie, about four miles in extent, environed by a chain of hills. The opposite side of the river presents a canebrake, extending a mile; the fort interspersed with lakes and marshes toward the south. The soil is of a character admitting of the most prolific cultivation. It is a staple commodity; and of mineral productions, the principal are iron and lead."

"As regards thermometrical observations, it is found that the temperature is higher at this point than at any other in the United States, with perhaps, of Fort Yuma, in Southern California. [See letter of Wirtz, Army Medical Statistics, p. 437.] The mean annual based on three years' observations, is 30.64 inches—one of the lowest among twenty-eight posts at which observations upon the subject have been made. The prevailing winds, which are southerly from the marshes and lakes above described."

"It thus appears that all the circumstances most conducive to malaria are present; the soil is alluvion; solar heat is of the most intense character, and the quantity of rain, although adequate to the maintenance of a certain degree of moisture, is not sufficient to overflow the marshes in the summer season."*

As the result, perhaps, of a general malarial influence, formed by Surgeons Pitcher and Wharton, that cholera-morbus, dysentery, diarrhoea, and rheumatism, at this post, frequently assume a strictly periodical character, together with their subjection to the same remedies to arrest the course of intermittent fevers, their common origin, is inferred.

As regards the prevalence of intermittent and remittent fever, according to the army medical returns, this is the most permanently occupied.

LOUISIANA.—The surface of this State is low and with some hilly ranges of little elevation in the western part, numerous basins or depressions. The great delta of the Mississippi included within the Atchafalaya and Iberville, and a fourth part of the area of the State, is seldom elevated ten feet above the sea, and is annually inundated by the river. A great part of the delta is composed of sea-marsh, the whole southern coast to the Sabine, and within the whole extent, is subject to inundation by the high water of the river. The north of this marsh spreads out the vast level of the delta, but is but little elevated above the former district. The

* Forry on the Climate of the United States, page 100.

of the Mississippi is also a low country, intersected with numerous small rivers, and liable to inundation. To the west and north of these is an extensive region, considerably broken, but nowhere exceeding two hundred feet in elevation. It consists mostly of pine barrens, interspersed with elms, cypress, and honey-locust. The tract east of the Mississippi and north of the Iberville and the connected lakes, closely resembles the last in surface and forest growths. It is, in fact, a part of the same upland plain, whose margin on the western side is separated from the river bed by the low inundated lands, but on the east comes up to the channel of the river, in many places forming those prominent bluffs on which stand Baton Rouge, St. Francisville, Fort Adams, Natchez, and Vicksburgh.

To conclude the foregoing geographical account, and present a full topographical outline of the States of Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana, we will now have to devote a separate section or two to a description of the Concordia, Yazoo and St. Francis bottom.

The first of these, commencing at the mouth of Red river, under the thirty-first degree of north latitude, and extending up entirely between the Mississippi and the cretaceous pine-woods plain on the west, with its greatest breadth, where it is traversed by the Arkansas and White rivers, terminates at the highlands in the rear of the town of Helena, Arkansas. This bottom being traversed by the Washita and Tensas rivers, has scattered over its surface the beautiful lakes of Villemots, Providence, Joseph, Concordia, Lovelace and Catahoola, together with innumerable lagoons and extensive swamps.

Of this bottom, the plantations along the Mississippi, the larger bayous and its numerous lakes, constitute, as yet, nearly all of its redeemed and habitable land. Near Helena, and between the mouths of the White and St. Francis rivers, where the Concordia bottom ends, commences the St. Francis bottom, which, after extending up the west side of the Mississippi to a little above the thirty-seventh parallel, terminates at the low hills about thirty miles above the mouth of the Ohio. This bottom, a greater portion of which is a forest of cotton-wood and canebrakes, like the one just described, also abounds in small lakes, lagoons, and extensive swamps.

[To be concluded next month.]

ART. IX.—CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

[LORENZO SABINE, Secretary of the Boston Board of Trade, has made a report recently upon the origin of Boards of Trade, in which he has seen fit to omit any mention of such Associations as are south of Baltimore. We might have expected from his antecedents, that Mr. Sabine was a gentleman who would hardly take the trouble to inquire into the facts of anything existing at a very great distance to the southward of New-England. We inform him, however, that there are Associations of the kind to which he refers, in most of our cities, and that those with which we are familiar in Charleston and New-Orleans, are conducted upon a scale quite as elevated, and exercise a degree of influence quite as extended, as those of any other city. These Chambers have discussed,

reported and memorialized upon Tariffs, Bankrupt Acts, Direction, Steam Lines and Mails, Harbor and River Improvements been constituted of men eminent in the mercantile ranks, and of energy and spirit. We quote from Mr. Sabine, his account of the North American Chamber of Commerce, that of England; including those to which he refers, he tells us of ten Chambers of Commerce and twenty Boards of Trade, between San Francisco.]

BRITISH BOARD OF TRADE.—We have barely time to mention the most considerable labors since about the year 1845. It has advised the revision of the tariff; the repeal of the hundred and twenty articles of import; the reduction of all raw materials; the conversion of prohibitory duties into a single rate, and the diminution of protective duties. It has revised the navigation laws, which, existing from the days of Henry VII. were deemed the bulwark of the kingdom. It has consolidated the statutes relating to ships and to kindred interests. It has been instrumental in adjusting, in a satisfactory way, the tonnage: it has introduced an examination of masters with great success: it has established shipping offices, in order to warn seamen against their tempters, who are the same in all countries: it has arranged a system of money orders, by which a sailor on receiving his wages may transmit certainly as much as he wills, to his family: it has instituted Savings Banks for mariners, and induced them to deposit considerable sums: it has provided for the wages and effects of deceased mariners, for their nearest relatives: it has issued, at great expense and at the request of the Admiralty, instructions to consuls, for guidance in all matters relating to shipping: it has extended the principle of salvage so as to include the saving of human life: it has insured the survey of steamers, and adopted a rigid mode of inquiry into the conduct of ship-masters. It has regulated claims for salvage by the navy, and the manner of volunteering into such vessels for merchant service; and modified the laws which compel ship-owners to take apprentices. It has improved the life-guards on the British coasts: revised the whole subject of the port of London, to the saving of one hundred thousand annually: devised a plan of registry and title to ships, once simple and safe: and receiving from Trinity House the management of lighthouses, it has remitted light-duties to the value of over three quarters of a million of dollars yearly.

BOARDS OF TRADE IN THE UNITED STATES.—It is the duty of the United States. At the commencement of the Republic, as far as we were able to ascertain, there were ten Chambers of Commerce, and Twenty Boards of Trade, between Port of San Francisco. It hardly need be said that all these are associations of men of business, without political po-

* The sum thus transmitted in 1856, was about \$700,000.

† The amount of these distributions in 1856, was \$150,000.

age, but generally with limited charter privileges, and sustained by self-imposed assessments and contributions.

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK is by far the oldest.* It was organized in 1768, for the purpose of "promoting and encouraging commerce, supporting industry, adjusting disputes relative to trade and navigation, and procuring such laws and regulations as may be found necessary for the benefit of trade in general." Two years after, its founders obtained a royal charter. At this juncture the merchants of Boston would have been refused a similar favor; for such had been and was their resistance to the laws of navigation and trade, that they were deemed objects of punishment, and ships and soldiers had been sent to awe them into submission; troops had been quartered in the very room which they used as an exchange; their vessels and merchandise had been seized; and they were prosecuted in the admiralty court, to recover ruinous fines and penalties.

Quite a different state of things existed in New-York. Isaac Low, an early president of the Chamber of Commerce, who, at first a whig and a member of the Continental Congress, fell off, lost his estate by confiscation, and died in banishment; and several more of the original members closed their days in exile, in consequence of their disaffection to the popular cause.

In 1784, the Chamber was continued a corporation, with enlarged privileges, by an act of the Legislature. Strangely enough, for nearly eighty years, and until within a few months, it was homeless, and depended upon accidental accommodation. It met first, probably, in a tavern; next, as required by charter, in the "great room" of the "Exchange" in Broad-street; early in the present century, where it best could; and from 1835 to June, 1858, in an apartment in the Merchants' Bank. Though until quite lately without a library, and a secretary devoted exclusively to its service, and though it has published no reports of its proceedings, the Chamber has still acted with energy upon the important questions in its province, which have arisen from time to time; and, as it has borne, and yet bears, upon its list of members, some of the most honored names that adorn the commercial annals of New-York, and of our common country, its influence in the legislation of the State and of the Nation, has been in accordance with its high respectability. The president, at the present time, is Peletiah Perit; and the Secretary, J. Smith Homans.

BALTIMORE BOARD OF TRADE.—In the history of the Baltimore Board of Trade, there are incidents somewhat singular. The first election of officers was on the 20th of February, 1821, when Robert Gilmer was chosen president, and William Cooke, secretary. Mr. Gilmer died the following year, and William Patterson, the senior vice-president, was elected to fill his place, but declined; and choice was made of the junior vice, William Lorman, who continued in office until January, 1830, when the Board ceased to exist. The number of members at the organization in 1821, was sixty-four, of whom eight survive, namely, F. W. Brune, Joseph King, jr., Isaac Tyson, jr., Philip E. Thomas, J. W. Patterson, James Broad-

dige, Israel Mankin, and William Cooke, the first and . These gentlemen, remarks our informant, "are in affluence and the respect of the entire community."

In February, 1836, the Board was revived: Hen was chosen president, and his son, Samuel T. Thomp The former survived but little more than a year, and by James Wilson, who served from 1837 until Marc there was a second diebanding. The latter continued whole time, and the Board, without rooms of their on private office.

After another interval of six years, and in Octob present Board was organized, under circumstances of permanence and success. John C. Brune, the first George U. Porter, the first secretary, have been annu and are now in office. The Board have apartments which are open to the members.

It is not in our power to enumerate the many u which have been proposed and matured during the l but of this we are certain, that the Baltimore Boar without other claims to honorable mention—deserv tude of the country, for opening the new channel in tl which ships of the largest draught can approach the and for establishing a floating school, in which boys ar tical seamanship, and trained to habits of thrift and a free of charge.

PHILADELPHIA BOARD OF TRADE — On the 15th of there was a meeting of merchants of Philadelphia— consideration the propriety of forming an association which the commercial and trading community may act with united effort on all subjects relating to thei which resulted in a resolution to form a Board of 7 election of twenty-four directors. On the 22d of th Thomas P. Cope was unanimously elected president and twenty merchants voting; and on the 1st of Ja constitution was adopted, which has never been essen J. M. Wright was the first secretary of the directo suppose, acted in that capacity for the Board. A corporation was obtained, in 1838, which authorizes the point annually two of the seven port-wardens of Phil

In the lapse of a quarter of a century, there have changes in the presiding, and only four in the re Mr. Cope remained resident until his decease, in P. Hooper, his successor, resigned at the close of 185 ceded by Samuel C. Morton, who is still in office. A secretary from 1834 to 1838; C. G. Childs, from year to 1853; F. W. Grayson, from 1853 to 1858 lowed by Lorin Blodget, the present secretary, It r from the small salary attached to the office, for sever the duties were occasional and inconsiderable, until q

The first movement of the Philadelphia Board—not unlike our own—was to increase facilities in transportation. In 1833, and before their organization was completed, they sent delegates to a convention called for the purpose of devising a plan for uniting the canals of Pennsylvania with those of Ohio; and by the publication and distribution of the proceedings of that body, and by continued action on the general subject of constructing canals and railroads, rendered efficient service in opening the existing means of communication with the West.

Since that time, the efforts of the Board to promote the commercial interests of Philadelphia and of the country, have been constant, earnest, and effective. Investigations into the causes of delay in the carriage of goods inland, always difficult and vexatious, have been made at intervals for years, and occasionally by special agents. Congress has been solicited by memorials, for additional lighthouses and buoys; for a survey and chart of the Delaware bay and river; for change in the postal laws; for a new customhouse, and a dry dock; for the erection of piers at Delaware City; for the establishment of the warehouse system; for a steam line to Brazil; for aid to revive steam communication with Europe. The President has been asked to interpose by negotiation or otherwise, to revive American ship-steam communication with Europe under national auspices. The Legislature of Pennsylvania has been addressed on the subject of a modification of the insolvent laws; on the inspection of tobacco; for aid to the city ice and tow boats; for revision of the usury laws; for the suppression of insurance companies of doubtful management or pecuniary ability; for the repeal of the tax levied by the State, on merchandise transported over the Pennsylvania Central Railroad.

Such are some of the matters which have attracted the attention of the Board, more or less of a public nature; while those of local importance are far too numerous to be mentioned here. Since the year 1854, our own co-operation has been sometimes asked in measures which are of national interest, and we recall no case in which it was refused.

Like the New-York Chamber of Commerce, the Philadelphia Board of Trade had no home until June, 1858, when two large rooms, with an office, were fitted up for their accommodation, on the second floor of a new iron building, opposite the Mayor's office and Independence Hall, Chestnut street. At first, the meetings were held in "Wade's Hotel" and the "Merchants' Coffee-House;" and after 1834, in some apartment of the "Exchange."

We are glad to add that the Board is in a prosperous condition, and has a considerable fund invested in State and other sound stocks.

BOSTON MERCANTILE ORGANIZATIONS.—About the year 1805, an association call the "Boston Importing Company" was formed, with the design of regulating the trade with London and Liverpool in a way to best suit the importers. Three or four first class ships were purchased, and kept employed. The war of 1812 put an end to our intercourse with England, and the Company closed their affair

One of the ships was detained by France, but was released by Mr. Armstrong, the American minister.

A second association was organized after the peace of 1814. The name of the "New England Society for the Promotion of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts," which still retains its corporate name. Semi-annual public sales of domestic goods were made under the auspices of this society, for several years, and with such success that the sales attracted buyers from different parts of the country to the benefit of Boston.

Chamber of Commerce.—On the 11th of January, 1837, a meeting of "Merchants and Traders, at the Old Council House, Boston Square, Thomas B. Wales presiding, and George W. C. as clerk," Stephen Fairbanks stated, that, at a previous meeting which he presided, a committee, of which Thomas B. Wales was chairman, was appointed to consider the expediency of a Chamber of Commerce, and that the persons then present agreed to act definitely on the subject. A constitution and laws were reported, and referred to a committee of which Lee was chairman; and, on the 18th of that month, the organization was completed by the choice of William Lee as president, of Thomas B. Wales, Robert G. Shaw, and George W. C. as vice-presidents, and of forty-eight directors. The number of members appears to have been two hundred and twenty. The government of the Chamber soon after elected the late Mr. Thacher, secretary, and James C. Wild, treasurer.

The presidents who followed Mr. Sturgis, were Thomas B. Wales, Nathan Appleton, and Abbott Lawrence. The successive vice-presidents, were Francis J. Oliver, Charles Henry Appleton, John Bryant, and Amos Lawrence. The number of directors were too numerous to be mentioned. Mr. Thacher was the only secretary; and when, in 1841, he resigned, he was chosen treasurer. In this mention of officers of the Chamber, we pronounce names that will appear from the annals of the humane and literary Republic of Massachusetts; names widely known, and widely blessed.

Board of Trade.—The act which incorporates the Boston Board of Trade, by the name of BOSTON BOARD OF TRADE, for the purpose of promoting the trade and commerce of the city and vicinity—which forbids us, in our corporate capacity, to engage in any merchandise of any description, and which allows us to do so to the amount of one thousand dollars—was approved by the Legislature in April, 1854. The government consists of, for the purpose, namely, a president, three vice-presidents, standing in each other's stead—of arbitration, of appeals, of inquiry into the state of the trade—a finance committee of three, twenty-four members, and a treasurer.

It is the aim of the Board to embody and to express in the most just and most liberal sense, the sentiments of the

trading classes of Boston, on all questions which relate to commerce, to trade, to manufactures, and to navigation. And, referring to our predecessors, we may express the opinion that much good has already been accomplished.

Subjects considered by the First and Second Boards.—The subjects considered under the first president were: A change in the revenue laws as regards seizures for smuggling; Grace on sight drafts: The usury laws; The bankrupt laws of Massachusetts; The change of banking hours; The transport of merchandise inland; The Reciprocity Treaty with the British Colonies; the capitation tax on immigrants arriving in Boston; Insurance and insurance companies; The difference of expense in repairing vessels in Boston and New-York; The rates of storage in government warehouses; The telegraph to Cape Cod; Calm and storm signal flags; Lines of steamers crossing the Atlantic; the quantity of merchandise transported by water to constitute a ton; The Transatlantic Telegraph Company; The trade with the West; The railway clearing-house system, as established in England, and as applicable to the United States.

These were the principal questions before the government of the Board the first and second years. James M. Beebe was the second president, and during his term of two years the questions entertained were numerous, and some of them highly important. Among them were, Notice to endorsers; Uniform system of bankruptcy; Repeal of the usury laws; The naval force of the United States in the China Seas; Charges on goods transported from Boston to Montreal; The strike of the stevedores' gangs; the removal of Charlestown naval station; The discovery of Capt. Morris, to overcome the effect of local attraction in ships' compasses; Renewed and expensive action to facilitate the transport of goods inland; The bill before Congress to amend and consolidate the navigation, revenue, and collection laws; Postal communication between Panama and Valparaiso; The Consular Act of Congress; Postal reform; Establishing lines of steamers coastwise; The islands in the East Indian seas; The laws which relate to the obtaining of goods under false pretences: The right of commanders of vessels to demand copies of bills of lading; The Grand Trunk railway; Boston harbor; Our relations with China; The exploration of the tributaries of the La Plata; The inspection of linseed in Boston; The boarding of vessels by runners and landlords; increase of banking capital in Boston; Lines of steamers to New-York and New-Orleans; Delay of vessels after the advertised day of sailing; Commission to certify persons qualified for masters and mates of merchant-vessels; Advance wages to seamen; Railway on the banks of the Welland Canal; and, Canal to connect the St. Lawrence with Lake Champlain.

Such are the questions discussed. All were investigated. On some, action was deemed inexpedient; on others, recommendations were made which may now be found embraced in laws; on still others, our timely interference prevented injurious legislation. To waive everything else: the wise and comprehensive policy of our

predecessors, on the subject of inland transportation, and of business between Boston and the West—as the direct of their labors—are alone sufficient to entitle *them* to it and sufficient, we will venture to add, to commend the confidence of the classes for whose benefit it was design interests it has steadily endeavored to serve, without preference.

Labors of the Present Board.—The present govern upon their duties at a moment of severe and general trade, from which recovery is even now but partial. expected that the year 1858 would be one of great records. And yet, it has happened that our several special committees have performed a great deal of lab

ART X.—HARBOR OF CHARLESTON, S. C

[In a recent number of the *REVIEW*, we called attention to the of the operations in deepening the bar and channel of Charleston, promised to refer again to the subject.

The interesting Memoir of Lieut. Maffit, U. S. Navy, being we extract in full his description of the bar and harbor of Char

THE deterioration of the main ship channel, and great changes of the bar of Charleston, S. C., are such attract attention, but also to excite a reasonable alarm of her citizens for the safety of her foreign commerce.

By careful comparison with her oldest charts, and of the most experienced and intelligent pilots, it is made all the channels have not only decreased in depth, but unfavorably in position.

An investigation of Des Barrés' chart of 1780, more than thirteen feet water could be brought in, entrance, at low tide. In 1817, the mean depth of Sherburne's chart, was twelve feet five inches; and in feet seven inches is to be found on the main bar at m

This information, which is corroborated by other evidence, no hope for an improvement by the action of nature. demands of commerce call for artificial means to be though the effort should result in but temporary benefit. many years ere such authentic information can be will enable the scientific community to ascertain the law which governs the action of nature, and produce changes on the shore and in the channel-ways.

Charleston bar extends from Sullivan's Island, in that direction (and somewhat parallel to Morris' Island), westwardly curve, eleven miles, until it connects with three miles south of Lighthouse Inlet.

The *average* breadth of the bar, from the interior

two-fathom curve, is one and three quarters of a mile; the greatest breadth, due east of Fort Sumter, is three and a half miles; the least breadth, east from the lighthouse, is half a mile. There is much irregularity in the breadth as well as in the configuration of the shoals.

Numerous channels intersect the bar nearly at right angles, and the shoals generally have a broken surface. But *two* of the channels are *now* available—the *north and main ship*; the former is east by south, from Fort Sumter, and through it all the northern coasting trade passes. It is narrow, with dangerous shoals on the north and south. Three buoys designate the passage, but the absence of lights prevents its use at night.

Two beacons were erected at Morris' Island, to give a range in, through the Overall channel, south of the north. In 1817, ten feet was the mean low water, but in 1851, important changes are shown to have occurred; a six-foot shoal now blocking up the west mouth of this channel, which has rendered it useless to navigation.

The most important, and through which all the foreign trade of Charleston passes, is the *main ship channel*, located three miles north from the southern extremity of the bar, and southeast from the lighthouse. This channel is the best and most narrow of all the passages, out or in.

Three buoys designate the locality of the deepest water, and a beacon is erected which, with the Charleston light, gives a range that enables the navigator to cross the bar at night with safety; when inside, the beacon lights back of Fort Moultrie mark out the channel up to Cumming's point.

The improvements of lights, beacons and buoys, as suggested by the "Board of Light-Houses," &c., for the advantage of Charleston harbor and bar, are necessary, and would materially tend to the benefit of navigation.

The water from the Cooper river rushes in a southeastwardly direction, until checked by a shoal projecting from the main land called Oyster point; deflected thence, it impinges on the Charleston side, cutting out a narrow but deep passage, called Town creek, between Drum Island and the main land. The water which does not pass through this channel shoots to the northward of Drum Island, and speedily mingles in a southeastwardly course with that of the Wando.

At the southern extremity of Drum Island all the waters of the Cooper and Wando are united, and pass together toward the city. It is probable that the extension of the northern wharves, as well as the current from the Wando, deflects a portion of this water from its regular course through a channel north of Folly Island, called Hog Island channel.

By a comparison with the maps of Des Barrés, of 1780, Major Bache, 1825, and United States Coast Survey, 1851, it is made evident that channel is rapidly increasing in breadth and depth, which circumstance has created a feeling of anxiety for other parts of the

inner harbor; as the loss of so large a volume of natural egress by the city, and westward by Castle F cause a diminution of depth abreast of the wharves, as of the middle ground.

The union of the waters of the Cooper, Wando, accrues at the west end of the middle ground, where they different influences to the *grand reservoir* of the harbor—

The separation of the tidal current at White point deposit of considerable extent, which projects out eight from the bath-house. The deep water of the Ashley average of four and a half fathoms, inclines along the (the alluvial deposit being great, and spreading out in on either shore); then glancing off to the southward with the direct action of a portion of the ebb from C touches on James Island, with a wasting influence whence it is again reflected, east northwardly, to Rebell

The convergence of the Ashley and Cooper has, no the formation of that troublesome shoal, in the center harbor, called the "Middle Ground," which extends of a mile west and east, and one third of a mile north having *at present* more depth than in 1825; the least eight feet at mean low water, and six at spring tide from Hog Island channel, after passing round Mon a circuitous direction, unites with that from Sullivan empties into Rebellion roads, where the union of of Charleston is perfected.

The large body of water compressed in Rebellion egress oceanward, between Forts Sumter and Moultrie, and scouring a force, that it has carved out the bottom depth of thirteen and fourteen fathoms, finding a foundation of marl mixed with shells; beyond this point the current over a greater surface, with the strongest tendency through the South and North channels. The velocity around and point is weakened, in its southern progress, from a great at right angles, over the bar. In passing through channel the ebb is somewhat re-invigorated, probably rent out of Lighthouse inlet, though its strength is not contend successfully with the deleterious action of the and hammering waves, forced in by the northeasterly

A portion of the ebb rejects the main ship channel on to the southward and westward of the south at its exit through the Lawford, which, in 1817, was at *now* a seven-foot channel. The flood to the eastward (in calm weather) sets about east by north—the ebb southwest. The currents are much influenced, though ed, by the prevailing wind. The average force of the bar is 1.2 miles per hour, with a duration of 5h. 40m. of the ebb is 1.55 miles per hour, with a duration of *side* of the bar, and particularly in the channel ways,

locity is much greater than *on it*; and *outside* the velocity is much less.

In the Cooper river, the bottom is generally mud and sand, the average depth being from five to eight and nine fathoms. Abreast of Market-street wharf the bottom is slaty, consequently the anchorage bad; proceeding further south, the mud increases, and, in the Ashley, muddy bottom prevails.

Between Folly and James' islands, mud and sand characterize the deep water, but fine sand the shoal.

In Rebellion roads, mud and gray sand predominate. A short distance south by west of Fort Moultrie, in a line with Cumming's point, there is a bed of calcareous or limestone rock, which is supposed to extend eastward farther than the limits of the bar. If this prove true, the proposition for dredging out the channel will be more attractive, from the increased probability of the experiment being successful.

The bar of Charleston is composed of fine gray sand, mixed with black specks, with occasional layers of coarse sand and broken shells. To the eastward of the bar, in deep water, coarse sand and gravel, with broken shells (and mud occasionally), constitute the general character of the bottom, except on the Rattlesnake shoal; that is formed of fine white sand and black specks, corresponding to the deposits on Drunken Dick.

The east three-fathom curve of the bar is uniform and nearly parallel with the coast, but the inside curves are broken and irregular, particularly from abreast of the Overall beacons to the westward, which originate from the dredging effects of the ebb tide, exhibiting greater strength *here* than further south.

The extensive shoals that caused the south breakers are strung together in the most singular and irregular manner, strongly exhibiting the influence of ocean wave and current action; fine gray sand, with occasional beds of broken shells, denotes the character of the bottom.

Along the beach of Sullivan's Island, is a channel with fourteen and fifteen feet of water at low tide, except at its inner or western entrance, by the long jetty south of Fort Moultrie, where is deposited a belt of broken shells and fine sand, with but seven feet upon it.

Adjacent to this belt, to the westward, the depth of water is very great, starting from twenty feet abruptly down to sixty. The ebb tide in this locality runs with great force, its average velocity being 2.4 miles per hour; and over the jettee it is very rapid until half ebb, when the exposure of the rocks, by the falling of the water, produced an eddy current favorable to the deposit which the flood tide has already made, increasing the east beach to some considerable extent.

ART. XI.—THE MOUNTAIN REGIONS OF NORTH CAROLINA AND TENNESSEE.

THERE is no region of America more remarkable for health, and better adapted to the wants of the Southern people for summer seats, than this; and we are glad to have frequent opportunities of calling attention to it.

In the last number of *Silliman's Journal*, we find a paper from S. B. Buckley, Esq., which contains many interesting particulars.

Dr. Mitchell estimated the highest point in the Black Mountains at 6,700 feet, being the most elevated point of land east of the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Olingman subsequently estimated the height at 6,941 feet, but the measurements of Professors Guyot and Turner, reach a little over 6,700 feet only. Mr. Olingman's estimate is therefore too high.

The following are Professor Mitchell's measurements. We introduce them and the subsequent remarks from Mr. Buckley:

	Above the sea.		Above the sea.
Asheville,.....	2,200 feet.	Col. Zachary's Cashiers valley,.....	2,324 feet.
French Broad river at Asheville,.....	1,977 "	Chimney Top,.....	4,433 "
Lower Ford of Pigeon,....	2,476 "	" " above Zachary's,.....	1,109 "
Waynesville,.....	2,723 "	Burnsville,.....	2,768 "
Head of Scott's Creek,....	3,240 "	Top of Black Mountain,....	6,772 "
Tuckaseige Ford,.....	1,927 "	Morganton,.....	1,661 "
Gully Whee Gap,.....	3,897 "	Table Rock,.....	3,584 "
Blue Ridge head of Tuckaseige,.....	3,795 "	Grandfather,.....	5,719 "
		Reanne,.....	6,187 "

It should be remembered that these measurements were also made previous to the railroad surveys, by which it is now known that the height of Asheville near the court-house is 2,260 feet.

For the convenience of future observers we give below, Prof. Guyot's measurements in 1856, in and around the Black Mountains, the three last excepted.

	Above the sea.		Above the sea.
Jesse Steppes, Lower Mountain House, Swainosa valley,.....	2,770 feet.	Bowlen's Pyramid at north end of the Black,.....	6,345 feet.
Terminus of carriage-road up Black Mt. to Wm. Patton's Mt. house,....	3,244 "	Wm. Patten's Mt. House,...	5,248 "
Potatoe Top,.....	6,389 "	Mt. Mitchell, " highest,"...	6,701 "
Mitchell's Peak,.....	6,577 "	Guyot's Peak,.....	6,661 "
Mount Gibbs,.....	6,585 "	Hairy Bear,.....	6,597 "
" Haulback,.....	6,401 "	Junction of Cattail Fork and Caney river,.....	2,824 "
Sandoz Peak,.....	6,612 "	Burnsville court house square, near Penland's Hotel,.....	2,819 "
Cattail Peak,.....	6,595 "	Mount Pisgah,.....	5,760 "
Rocky Trail Peak,.....	6,486 "	Roane Mt.,.....	6,318 "
Deer Mountain,.....	6,216 "	Grandfather, measured in 1858,.....	5,897 "
Long Ridge Middle Peak,...	6,253 "		

The following are the heights of some mountains and places in North Carolina and Tennessee, south and west of Asheville, which were measured by Mr. Buckley with two of Green's standard barometers during the months of September and October in 1858. Prof.

J. Le Conte, of Columbia, S. C., observed the stationary barometer at Waynesville, N. C., for the measurement of most of the highest Smoky Mountains, but being called away by the duties of his professorship, the stationary barometer was removed to Col. Cathey's, at the Forks of Pigeon, Haywood Co., N. C., and placed in charge of Miss S. Cathey. Mr. Buckley also received material assistance from Mr. T. J. Lenoir and Mr. Turner Cathey, during his mountain excursions.

	Above the sea.		Above the sea.
Waynesville, ...	2,815 feet.	Lenoir's Bald Mt., ...	6,040 feet.
Col. Cathey's, ...	2,750 "	Mount Hardy, ...	6,257 "
Platt's Peak, ...	6,196 "	Mount Lenoir, ...	6,413 "
Jones' "	6,337 "	N. Peak of Mt. Lenoir, ...	6,399 "
Amos Platt's Balsam, ...	6,406 "	Sarah's Mountain, ...	5,998 "
Cold Mountain, ...	6,105 "	Mount Cathey, ...	5,742 "
Shining Rock, ...	6,063 "	" Starling, ...	6,456 "
Father Old-Field, ...	6,116 "	" Emmons, ...	6,465 "
Hyman's Peak, ...	6,095 "	Flat Creek Balsam, ...	6,087 "
Cathey's "	6,240 "	Whiteside, ...	5,076 "
Wilson's Balsam, ...	6,270 "	Top of Whiteside to base of	
Mount Hargrove, ...	6,156 "	precipice, ...	1,510 "
Devil's Court-House, ...	6,057 "	Mount McDowell, ...	5,100 "

The following points are in the Smoky Mountains, and many of them are on the State line, between North Carolina and Tennessee.

E. P. Hopkins's house, ... 1,995 feet. | White Rock Mountain, ... 5,002 feet.

This last is a misnomer of the hunters, being composed of a dark gneiss and mica slate, covered in many places with white lichens, the most abundant of which are *Cladonia rangiferina*, and *Cladonia Caroliniana*.

Mount Safford, ...	6,296 feet.	Old Field Knob, ...	6,220 feet.
" Henry, ...	6,425 "	Peck's Peak, ...	6,338 "
" Guyot, ...	6,734 "	Safford's Peak, ...	6,559 "
" Floyd, ...	6,073 "	Mount Le Conte, ...	6,670 "
" Mingus, ...	5,779 "	Mount Buckley, ...	6,755 "
Summit of Road Gap near		Curtis' Peak, ...	6,511 "
the Alum Cave, ...	5,814 "	Mount Collins, ...	6,241 "
Right Hand Gap, ...	5,162 "	Robert Collins' House, ...	2,585 "
Mount Oona, ...	5,978 "		

The scenery of these mountains, especially those in the Smoky Range, abounds in precipices and deep chasms, surpassing anything we remember to have seen among the White Mountains of New Hampshire. The spectator on the highest Smoky Peaks can enjoy a more varied view than from any other points in the Southern Alleghanies. East Tennessee with its towns, rivers, and the Cumberland mountains in the distance, is spread beneath at the west. On the north can be seen the Clinch mountains extending into Kentucky. At the northeast, east, and southeast, in full view are all the higher mountains of North Carolina, and at the south the smaller ones of Northern Georgia. Such prospects *pay* the explorer for his toil; their remembrance is always sweet. The country on the Tennessee side is much lower than in South Carolina, and the descent of the

Smoky Mountains is generally more abrupt and precipitous into the former State, than into the latter.

The highest Smoky Mountains are near the head waters of the Oconalufus and Little Pigeon rivers, being accessible from Tennessee via Sevierville, and up the Little Pigeon to a Mr. Hawkins's, who lives eight miles from the top of the gap-road, which is near the alum cave; and from North Carolina by the road up the Oconalufus to Mr. Collins's house, seven miles from the top of the afore-named gap-road.

The geology of the mountains south and west of Asheville has a good deal of sameness, they being composed of crystalline rocks, with the exception of a narrow strip, extending southwest along the Unaka or Smoky Mountains, which belongs to the taconic system of Emmons. The taconic rocks here consist of dark colored shales in which we do not remember to have seen any organic remains. The strata of these rocks are in many places nearly and often quite vertical. They are well exposed along the Middle or Straight Fork of the Ravensfork in descending from Mount Guyot to the Oconalufus. They also occur at the summit of the gap-road near Mount Mingus, and extend two or three miles down the road into North Carolina. The chief rocks of the Haywood mountains are granite, gneiss, and mica slate, excepting a small portion near the Smoky Range, where the taconic rocks are again found. The Shining-Rock mountain, about eleven miles south of the Forks of the Pigeon is entirely of white or milky quartz, and is probably the largest mass of that rock at any one point in the Alleghanias. It has a fine appearance in the distance, and is deservedly becoming quite a place of resort. We believe that Haywood and Jackson counties, N. C., have not as yet afforded any paying mines to those who have been at the expense of working them, but it must be admitted that they have been little explored for that purpose. Prof. Emmons, the State geologist, contemplates a survey of those mountains next summer, and we suspect that he will destroy the golden dreams of a few who build castles upon undeveloped mineral wealth. * * *

The banks of streams and coves of these mountains have some of the largest trees in the United States east of Mississippi river. There is a tulip tree or poplar (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), near the Pigeon river in Haywood Co., N. C., about eight miles from the Tennessee line, thirty-three feet in circumference at three feet from the ground, or eleven feet in diameter, and upward of one hundred feet high. Another on the western slope of the Smoky Mountains in Tennessee, on the Little Pigeon river, is twenty-nine feet in circumference at three feet from the ground. Near this locality we also measured a chestnut (*Castanea vesca*), thirty-three feet in circumference at four feet from the ground. It is a noble living specimen, apparently sound, and of nearly a uniform diameter upward, for forty or fifty feet. About two miles farther up the same stream there is a hemlock, or spruce pine (*Abies canadensis*), nineteen feet and two inches in circumference at four feet from its base. Here

also the *Halesia tetraptera* attains an uncommon size, being from two to three feet in diameter, and about sixty feet high. On Jonathan's creek there is a white oak (*Quercus alba*), nineteen feet in circumference at three feet from the ground. This list of large trees could greatly be extended, but enough have already been cited to show the richness of those coves and valleys.

The *Quercus leana* of Nuttall occurs at several places on the Tennessee river near Franklin, in Macon Co., North Carolina. It is evidently there a hybrid between *Quercus imbricaria* and *Q. tinctoria*. Its acorns are identical with those of the *Q. imbricaria*. On the Haywood mountains we saw a few specimens of the *Betula excelsa* (yellow birch), and Mr. Curtis says he found it on the Black Mountains. Among several shrubs which we obtained for cultivation the *Pyrularia oleifera* or oil-nut is peculiarly interesting. It grows to the height of from five to ten feet, and bears a pear-shaped fruit little more than an inch in diameter, which is so oily that it will burn like a candle if a wick be drawn through it. Squirrels are fond of it, and cattle have a great liking for the young branches and leaves of the *Pyrularia*. Last spring we saw an abundance of it in the edge of some woods fenced into a wheat-field, and in October we again went there after the fruit; but the harvest was past, the field had been pastured with cattle, which had destroyed nearly all of the *Pyrularia*. Hence it has already become rare, and the general occupancy of the mountains with herds of cattle and flocks of sheep would soon destroy it entirely. Mr. Durand, of Philadelphia, thinks that the oil expressed from it is superior to the best olive oil. Our specimens of the *Pyrularia* have been planted at Philadelphia, New-York, and at the botanic garden of Cambridge, near Boston, and also some of them have been sent to Paris to the Acclimating Society of France, whose object is to acclimate useful trees, shrubs and plants. * *

In the month of September many of the women and children dig "sang" (*Aralia quinquefolia*), in the valleys and on the mountain sides. The dry roots of the ginseng, or "sang," as it is always there called, are worth at home twenty-five cents per pound. We met with one man who had bought 30,000 pounds, and we remember being with one family whose children sold seventy pounds of dried sang. These roots are dug with a long narrow hoe called the "sang hoe."

From the great height of the southern Alleghanies, there being twenty-four peaks higher than Mount Washington, it will be readily inferred that they have a northern climate. A year ago, our guide to the top of Roane told us that he had been on its summit when it was covered with snow on the 17th of June. There is a table-land extending from near the Roane to the head of Turkey Cove and Linville Falls, a distance of twenty or thirty-five miles, on which the inhabitants succeed with difficulty in raising Indian corn sufficient for their own consumption. Occasionally they have frost during every month in the year, and then they resort on horseback or on foot to the valleys for corn. About the first of last May we

saw the mountains in Haywood covered with snow about six inches deep. The wheat harvest at the Forks of Pigeon begins about the first week in July; and we know of no better criterion for isothermal lines than the time of ripening wheat. We kept a record of it in western New-York, and in ten years the annual time of beginning the wheat harvest did not vary three days from the 16th of July.

The valleys in the Carolina Mountains vary in elevation from two thousand to upward of three thousand feet, hence a few miles travel will often take one to a much warmer or colder climate. This we experienced very sensibly in going from the valley of Jonathan's creek to that of the Soco river. The former has a mean elevation of about three thousand feet and the latter near two thousand. The Chinese sugar-cane (*Sorghum*) is extensively grown, and may be regarded as a decided success. There are few portions of the Union where such a production is more needed. The absence of railroads and the cost of transportation render sugar and molasses dear; hence the introduction of the Chinese sugar-cane in that section is a great blessing, and will enable many a poor family to have sweet coffee.

In no section of the United States have we seen finer apples, and they are mostly from seedlings originally planted by the Indians. Silas McDowell of Franklin, in Macon Co., has devoted more than twenty years to the selection and grafting of those best native apples, and he now has an orchard of more than 600 apple-trees, which bear fruit equal, if not superior, to the best Northern kinds. There is said to be a line or belt on the mountain-sides, about three hundred feet above the adjoining plain or valley, and extending upward several hundred feet, where fruit-trees always bear, because the belt is free from frost. If this be true—and we believe its truth has been pretty well tested by experiment—the mountains of North Carolina might supply the South with an abundance of the choicest fruit, if the means of transportation were good. By the cultivation of more grass, and the introduction of the improved breeds of cattle into those mountain valleys, butter and cheese might also be made for the Southern market. One great drawback to the raising of sheep is that they are destroyed by wild animals, and also killed by the dogs. Still we think it would even pay well to keep sheep, herd them at night, and have a shepherd with his dog to guard them by day, and thus revive old Arcadian times among those delightful mountains.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—GOLD DEPRECIATION.

THE effects of gold discoveries in California and in Australia have as yet not made themselves felt in the manner that was generally expected. Since prices of all other commodities, as well as of silver, have not relatively changed in any very great degree, gold will not now buy much less of other property than could be procured for it ten years since; and the relative price of silver remains the same, viz., standard silver in the open market of London, the financial centre of the world, is per ounce 61½, and gold is £3 17s. 9d., or 933 per ounce, being as 1 to 15, the same proportion as for the previous twenty years. The theory that gold would depreciate in proportion to the other products of value, or in other words, that less flour, wheat, corn, silver, &c., would be given for an ounce of gold than formerly, seems mostly to have been based on reasoning which overlooks the proportionate annual increase of all other commodities, and the vast development of trade, which could hardly take place but for new supplies of gold to act as a medium of exchange. It is no doubt the case that the discovery of the mines of America caused, after the lapse of some thirty years, a great change in the relative value of silver to gold, and of both metals to other commodities, since silver, which was as 1 to 10 gold in value, rose to 1 to 15, and all prices rose considerably. But the state of affairs in the industrial and commercial world was very different then from what it is now. Machinery was hardly known, and intercourse was so limited between countries or between parts of the same country, that, as Macauley tells us, even in England famine prevailed in some shires, while food rotted from superabundance in others. Slavery had not ceased to exist in England. Even Queen Elizabeth enfranchised some of her slaves in Yorkshire for pay, and western Europe was not in a condition by which its debts could be much affected by prices. In France, in that age, and long after, wheat or corn bread was unknown to a majority of the people. Chestnuts, mast, and similar articles, were used instead, and those articles which are now considered necessities, from being thought comforts and luxuries, were then rarely known, even in the latter character. The general condition of the people in other European nations was not more favorable to the influence of gold. The active traffic was of but little consequence. Hence, no matter how great was then the supply of new gold, it could have but little influence upon the productions of general industry, and gold fell in value, because there was no increased production of equivalents with which to purchase it. The metals "oozed" slowly out of Spain, affecting only certain points. In the present age the effect has been very different. The new gold discoveries found steam in full activity. Railroads and steamboats penetrate every point of the industrial world. Every branch of industry is operated more or less by steam machines. The telegraph spreads news to every industrial locality in a few hours, and a variation of the price of any commodity is known to all who can either consume or produce it, in a very short space of time. It resulted that the news of the gold discoveries, and their probable effect reached every point of the commercial world almost simultaneously, and put in motion every possible element of production, in order to avail of it. The result was a production of exchange equivalent for gold in the following three years, probably exceeding that which took place in a century after the first discovery of America. This increasing production of other commodities has gone on in a greater ratio than the production of gold, which, indeed has become stationary, since in the last six years the aggregate annual product of Australia and California has not increased. Asia has also in the same time absorbed largely of the silver which has been displaced by gold, being a far larger circle of industry with the aid of the money of Europe. The production of food and commodities is now more active than ever, and in western Europe will exert all the elements of a very refined extension of the industrial arts.

The effect which the production of gold has had upon other commodities has also manifested itself in the case of silver, which, by the increase, has been produced cheaper. If it has not risen in proportion to gold, it has latterly in proportion to Asiatic produce, where it is most in demand. The failure of the silk crops of Europe caused an immense rise in the price of China silk, and silver is the medium of payment. Teas were of course dear, and the English remittance to India for railroads, inventions, &c. was in silver also. If much of their supplies were drawn from the United States, still greater quantities here are drawn from the Mexican and Peruvian mines. The latest return of the Mexican mines gives the quantity produced at 24,100,000 for the year 1856. The short crops of Europe are the main cause of sending large quantities of the metals to Asia; and the market begins to react. The crops of Europe now are very abundant, and wines and materials generally are in good supply, hence the export of metals ceases while they become more active internally. In the United States, the quantities are large, which the demand for is likely to be considerably increased in the last ten years 100,000,000 of acres of new land have been taken up, and 8,000,000 souls have been added to the population. Land, capital, and materials, are all uniting in abundance to be conveyed by railroads, steamships, and canals, are profusely scattered over the country for transport or exchange commodities in the most prompt and cheap manner, and to activate all their industries and interests, there is abundance of money, the activity of trade increases, money will require to circulate more rapidly to improve in supply, and it may well be questioned whether the United States will do more than to meet that growing demand without doing its own depreciation.

2.—LAND AND COTTON,

The sales of the lands of the Federal Government during the year 1857 show results as follows, in the aggregate :

	1857		Ja
	July 1 to Dec. 31.		
	Acres.	Value.	Acres
At \$1.25 per acre, ...	489,946	\$607,427	327,
At 12½ c. a \$1.00 per acre, ...	1,682,021	578,333	1,305,
Total, ...	2,171,967	\$1,185,760	1,632,
Returns, ...			3,804,

The largest sales of land were made in the State of Missouri, nearly 1,900,000 acres on those lines where the railroads are now being constructed, some of the Western States, as in Illinois, the interest of the Federal Government has been extinguished by sale in the public lands, and the only land held there are by the Illinois Central Railroad, which has, it is said, received half its grant. The sales in the other Southern States have been to some extent. Thus of the latter sales of 3,804,000 acres, 3,050,000 were made in the States of Missouri, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida. The settlement of the Southern States goes on more rapidly, high prices of cotton than formerly—the more so, that so much land is now passed into the hands of private holders, and in consequence of depression by reason of the low prices of produce. There have been 1,000,000 acres of land taken up in Arkansas in the last fiscal year, probably that with the rising value of cotton a much more rapid settlement of fresh lands would take place but for the equally advancing depression. When planters were formerly contented with an average of 100 acres, they could not afford to embark so readily in new undertakings of the culture. This was done, however, during the speculative period of 1836, by means of the loans made by the several States to create a fund to support the burden of clearing new lands. All the States, above, with the exception of Missouri, created large debts in the process, the proceeds formed the capitals of real State Banks, which were based on mortgages of cotton lands and negroes. The process was not so rickety, however, and fell through, with great disasters that went to impede the progress of the cotton culture.

In the last twenty years the South has engaged in no speculation, but the value of its materials has gone on rapidly increasing in annual proceeds. The value of the crops of the last four years, as compared with 1840, has been as follows :

	Cotton.		Tobacco.		Rice.	Sugar.
	Bales.	Price.	bhds.	Value.	Value.	Value.
1840,....	1,634,945	8c.	119,500	\$9,883,957	\$1,942,076	\$3,500,239
1855,....	2,847,339	8½	103,890,000	150,213	14,712,468	1,717,953
1856,....	3,527,845	9½	154,107,000	116,962	12,221,843	2,390,231
1857,....	2,939,519	12½	174,101,000	156,848	20,622,772	2,290,400
1858,....	3,113,962	11½	178,156,000	127,670	17,009,000	1,870,000
						16,916,602

Thus the value of these four products has risen from \$66,500,000 in 1840 to \$213,600,000 per annum in 1858. While this large development has been going on, the South has been engaged in no enterprise which absorbs money, as did the immense railroad schemes of the West. The means of extending the culture of these products seems alone to have engaged attention, and it is not to be wondered at if draining and other improvements have a good deal raised the profits and prepared the way for still more extensive operations. It is evident that a country so prepared to extend its business has nothing to fear from any rivalry that may be "fumed up" by the exigencies of foreign manufacturers, or the lands should now be in demand in those sections for more extended operations.

3.—COTTON IN INDIA.

The last pamphlet of Petermann's Geographical Contributions (German), just received the first of this year, contains some valuable information in reference to the agricultural productions of India. An admirable map accompanies this, on which the areas of wheat, indigo, cotton, opium, saul tree (*Shorea robusta*), teak (*Tectonia grandis*), localities adapted to tea, coal regions, iron ore quarries, tin and salt mines, are laid down with care. The navigable portions of the rivers, and the railroads in operation, or construction, are also shown; so that the entire map embraces the various matters of interest to the agriculturist, and, to a considerable extent also, those of importance to the miner.

We naturally, here in our part of the world, are most prominently interested in the distribution of the cotton area, but some slight notice of the regions occupied by the other productions may also be worth having.

Commencing in the north, we have first a long belt of tea region, skirting the Himalaya Mountains, from Assam west to the Punjab, from twenty to forty miles in width. In the Punjab, Delhi, and Oude, we have the great wheat region of Hindostan, extending over the entire head waters of the Indus and Ganges. Toward the mouth of the latter river we perceive a broad extent of indigo country on the north side, and of opium on the south. Both of these are in Bengal in which also occur the coal and iron mines north of Calcutta. Similar mines exist also in Central Hindostan, in Nerbudda. Opium is grown near these, at Serange. Salt is obtained in the Punjab and at Lake Sambur. Teak forests abound chiefly in Western Hindostan; and cotton, to which our chief inquiries refer, appears to be cultivated over a very extended region.

Beginning in the east, we have first a strip of cotton region on the coast of Burmah, opposite the mouths of the Ganges; then, higher up that river, we meet with a wide body of cotton lands in Oude and Delhi. Another is seen near the mouth of the Indus; again another in Guzerat; while still more extensive cotton regions are found in Central India; in Nerbudda, Berar, Nizam, and Misore, on the waters of the Nerbudda, Godavery, Tungabudra, and Cavery. These names are but little familiar to our ears, although reference to a good map will easily indicate the regions alluded to.

From the accompanying letter press contribution, we discover that in Bengal the entire cotton crop is consumed at home. Yet it is there stated to have been asserted, that the entire cotton supply demanded by the British market, could be furnished by the cotton lands of Nizam, Nagpore, and Berar. As yet, however, the presidency of Bengal has exported little or nothing in cotton. The presidency of Madras has already furnished a small quota; still, it cannot have been worth considering, for in the year 1854-'55, the entire region planted in cotton in the

portion of India amounted only to 917,374 acres ; one and a third being the estimated extent of the entire region adapted to cotton. The density of Bombay a very different account must be given. Nearly of acres (more accurately 2,890,279 acres), or one thirty-fourth area, is there cultivated in cotton. The district of Guzerat produces, although its area is only one-hundredth of that of entire India, yielded in 1850 fifty-six per cent. of the whole cotton crop of India. During the five years, from 1849-'50 to 1853-'54, Bengal yielded 60,000 lbs. Madras, only 43,993,473 lbs. for the British market, while the United States exported 598,218,675 lbs. The following table shows the exports during these years, in the article referred to :

Year.	To Great Britain.	To other Ports.
1849-50.....	110,690,357 lbs.....	54,974,863.....16
1850-51.....	141,446,798.....	85,026,885.....22
1851-52.....	81,104,223.....	172,448,608.....25
1852-53.....	181,360,994.....	81,547,180.....26
1853-54.....	138,183,429.....	59,578,336.....19

During this period Great Britain imported, altogether, 4,021,000 lbs. of cotton, of which 652,785,801 lbs. were received from India, so that the country furnished about one sixth, or sixteen per cent. of the entire sum. It is true, that probably the whole of the cotton furnished by India, was again re-shipped in the shape of goods. Dr. Wighams asserts that the annual consumption of cotton, for each individual, does not average less than twenty pounds. This would amount to a consumption of about 3,000,000,000 pounds. For India to furnish the cotton she now consumes would, therefore, it is stated, require an increased production of one fifth to what is now made. Almost all is native, and hence well adapted to the country. Of American cotton 2,320 acres were planted in Madras, and in Bombay 52,313 acres a year to which these data refer.

In our part of the world, we are aware that India has to contend with the want of production in the way of laboring forces, which are foreign to the statements here given are worth considering, especially, as we are assured that England's pretended philanthropy will never check her production of measures of importance for material comfort. Is it not probable that we are to prepare ourselves to cope with this growing competition, by all means likely to insure continued prosperity? The recent difficulties in India have retarded their cotton production; but excepting last year, even these reports treat of a gradually increased production is visible.—C

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

PROPOSED RAILROAD SYSTEM FOR MOBILE.

Our Mobile neighbors are very enterprising, and have acted with boldness in their railroad projections, and are deserving of all but the other day they consented to a new tax for this purpose. A very heavy tax upon the whole real estate of the city had been following is extracted from a recent letter of Lewis Troost, Engineer, some valuable statistics, which we regret must be a little condensed on pages :

An inspection of a railroad map of the United States will show the Alabama and Florida railroad, extending from Montgomery to Pensacola and Girard railroad, and the proposed railroad from Savannah, to Eufaula ; and that the Alabama and Tennessee river railroad, with its southern extension, the Selma and Gulf railroad, are respectively the two vast systems of railroads which con-

the limits of the United States on the north and east, and pass through all the Northern, Eastern, Middle, and some of the Western States. To connect the city of Mobile with these two systems of railroads, and thus to make it their terminus on the Gulf of Mexico, is the object of the Mobile and Great Northern railroad.

This enterprise, so important to the city of Mobile, can be effected by two different plans of operations, which may be stated as follows :

1st. By constructing about 85 miles of railroad in a northeast direction from Mobile, which would make a connection with the Alabama and Florida railroad, and by building a branch of about 35 miles, uniting with the Selma and Gulf railroad ; and by it with the Alabama and Tennessee river railroad ; and also by making a short branch to join the Mobile and Girard, and the railroad from Savannah, the length of which will depend on the location of these roads.

2d. By building a road from 96 to 100 miles, on the same route as that occupied by the road to the Selma and Gulf railroad on the first plan, which will connect it with Alabama and Tennessee river railroad, and thence by extending it 26 or 27 miles to the Alabama and Florida railroad, where it would be in a good position to meet the Mobile and Girard railroad and the railroad from Eufaula.

A careful instrumental survey of the lines composing these two plans, will be necessary to decide which is the best. The ultimate cost of each will, I think, be found not to vary greatly, in which case, that one which best subserves the interests of Mobile, should be adopted.

The railroad may be put in operation with a moderate expenditure of money by first constructing that part of it extending from the east bank of the Alabama river to the Alabama and Florida and Selma and Gulf railroads, and by temporarily employing steamboats on the river and bay of Mobile, for the remainder of the distance to Mobile.

One swift passenger steamboat, with an extra boat in reserve, two steamtugs, and twelve freight barges, would be sufficient for the business of the line for several years, or until the road is continued to Mobile.

The railroad to be constructed would pass over a country favorable for railroad making, requiring neither expensive grading nor bridging, and abounding in timber of good quality. In the absence of instrumental surveys, it may be assumed that a good railroad (furnished with a T rail 57 lbs. to the yard on that part of the line comprised between the river and the Selma and Gulf railroad, and with a T rail 50 lbs. to the yard on that part of it extending thence to the Alabama and Florida Railroad, properly fastened on cross ties,) can be built through this country and make the required connections at the present prices of labor and materials, provided means are promptly supplied as wanted—

For.....	\$961,000
Add for equipment with which to commence business.....	173,000
And for two passenger steamboats and two steamtugs with twelve freight barges.....	116,000

Makes the probable cost of connecting Mobile with the Alabama and Florida, and Selma and Gulf Railroads by railroad and steamboat.. \$1,250,000

Experience has, however, demonstrated that no compound line, composed of railroad and steamboat, should be adopted on important routes where it is practicable to have a through railroad line. In this case, it is suggested only as a temporary expedient, to be dispensed with whenever means can be procured to construct a continuous railroad to Mobile.

There are really no engineering obstacles to prevent the construction of a railroad from the east bank of the river across the delta into the city of Mobile.

The assertion is ventured that a good railroad, with a T rail 57 lbs. to the yard, can be made on this part of the line—

For.....	\$521,000
The additional equipment in locomotives, cars, stations, etc., may be estimated at.....	187,000
Add the probable cost of the Montgomery and Selma connections.....	1,250,000
	\$2,058,000
Deduct half the cost of the steamboats and barges, which will be sold when the railroad is completed to Mobile.....	58,000

Makes the total probable cost of the Montgomery and Selma connections, equipped for business, and terminating in this city... \$2,000,000

A railroad so favorably situated cannot fail to prove a profitable

The following summary of the foregoing results, with the rates of taxation applied, exhibits the gross income of the road :

40,000 passengers at an average of \$3.....	
75,000 bales of through cotton at 80 cents.....	
10,000 " " way " " 60 "	
30,000 tons of coal, at 11 cents per ton per mile, \$1 44 per ton.....	
1,500 tons of iron, at \$2 50 per ton.....	
2,500 tons of lime, at \$1 60 per ton.....	
Miscellaneous down freight.....	
Lumber.....	
Miscellaneous up freight, 22,916 tons, at an average of \$4 75.....	
Mails and express, at \$209 per mile.....	

Total gross income.....	
Deduct for all expenses of running and managing the road, maintenance of road way, machinery, and buildings, and for depreciation of track and rolling stock, fifty per cent., say.....	

Leaves net income.....
Or, 10 per cent. on \$2,000,000, the cost of the road, and a surplus of \$

TABLE No. 1.

ROUTES.	RAILROADS COMPOSING THE ROUTE.		Condition.			
	NAMES.	LOCATION.	In operation. Miles.	In progress. Miles.	Not commenced. Miles.	Length of Rail- road. Miles.
Mobile to Savannah via Eufaula & Albany.	Mobile & Great North'n R. R. and projected R. R. to Eufaula. Southwest, Albany and Gulf R.	From Mobile to Eufaula..... Eufaula to Savannah	74	32	215	215
Mobile to Savannah via Columbus and Macon.	Mobile and Great North. R. R. and Mobile and Girard R. R. Muscogee & S'hwst'n R. R. Central Georgia R. R.....	From Mobile to Columbia..... Columbus to Macon..... Macon to Savannah.....	40	24	171	235
Mobile to Savannah via Montgomery, Columbus and Macon.	Mobile and G. Northern R. R. and Alabama & Florida R. R. Mont'y, W. P. and Muscogee R. Muscogee, Southwestern and Central Georgia R. R.....	From Mobile to Montgomery..... Montgomery to Columbus. Columbia to Savannah.....	30	16	122	168
Mobile to Charleston via Montgomery & Augusta.	Montgomery and W. Point R. Atlanta and Lagrange R. R.... Georgia R. R..... South Carolina R. R.....	Montgomery to West Point. West Point to Atlanta.... Atlanta to Augusta..... Augusta to Charleston.....	88			88
Mobile Norfolk to Montgomery, Atlanta, Wilmington and Weldon.	South Carolina R. R..... Columbia Branch R. R..... Wilmington and Manchester R. R. Wilmington and Weldon R. R. Seaboard and Roanoke R. R....	Augusta to Branchville... Branchville to Kingville... Kingville to Wilmington... Wilmington to Weldon.... Weldon to Norfolk.....	75			75
Mobile via Montgomery and Atlanta to Richmond.	Petersburg R. R.....	Weldon to Petersburg.....	64			64
Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York.	Richmond & Petersburg R. R. Rich. Fred. and Potomac R. R. Steamboat on Potomac river... Washing. branch B. & O. R. R. Phil., Wil. and Balt. R. R. ... N. J. C. and O. and P. & T. R. R.	Petersburg to Richmond... Richmond to Acquia Co.... Acquia Co. to Washington. Washington to Baltimore.. Baltimore to Philadelphia... Philadelphia to New-York.	22			22
Mobile via Montgomery, Atlanta and Dalton to Knoxville.	Western and Atlantic R. R....	Atlanta to Dalton.....	100			100
Lynchburg and Richmond.	East Tenn. and Georgia R. R.. East Tenn. and Virginia R. R.. Virginia and Tenn. R. R..... South Side Railroad..... Richmond and Danville R. R....	Dalton to Knoxville..... Knoxville to Bristol..... Bristol to Lynchburg..... Lynchburg to Burkeville... Burkeville to Richmond...	110			110
Mobile via Montgomery, Atlanta, Knoxville, Alexandria to Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York.	Orange and Alexandria R. R....	Lynchburg to Alexandria..	168			168
Boston, Portland, Bangor, Montreal and Quebec.	Washing. and Alexandria R. R. Wash'n branch of B. & O. R. R. Phil., Wil. and Balt. R. R. ... N. J. C. C. and A. & P. & T. R. N. York and New-Haven R. R. N. Hn., Hart and Springfield R. Boston, Wore. and West. R. R. Boston and Maine R. R. Androscooggin and Kennebec. Penobscot and Kennebec and Androscooggin R. R. Grand Trunk R. R. Grand Trunk R. R.	Alexandria to Washington. Washington to Baltimore.. Baltimore to Philadelphia.. Philadelphia to New-York.. New-York to New-Haven.. New-Haven to Springfield.. Springfield to Boston..... Boston to Portland..... Portland to Bangor..... Portland to Montreal..... Montreal to Quebec.....	9			9
			39			39
			98			98
			87			87
			73			73
			62			62
			98			98
			111			111
			137			137
			292			292
			168			168

TABLE No. 2.

RAILROADS COMPOSING THE ROUTES.			
ROUTES.	NAMES.	LOCATION.	In operation.
Mobile via Selma to Knoxville, Lynchburg, Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York.	Mobile and Great Northern R. and Selma and Gulf R. R. Alabama and Tenn. River R. R. East Ala. and Georgia R. R. East Tenn. and Georgia R. R. East Tenn. and Virginia R. R. Virginia and Tennessee R. R. Orange and Alexandria R. R. Washington and Alexandria R. Wash'n Branch of B. & O. R. Phil., Wtl. and Balt. R. R. N. Jer'y C. & A., & Phil. & T.	Mobile to Selma..... Selma to Jacksonville..... Jacksonville to Dalton..... Dalton to Knoxville..... Knoxville to Bristol..... Bristol to Lynchburg..... Lynchburg to Alexandria..... Alexandria to Washington..... Washington to Baltimore..... Baltimore to Philadelphia..... Philadelphia to New-York.	M 1 2 3 4
Mobile via Selma, Gadsden and Chattanooga to Knoxville.	Alabama & Tenn. River R. R. Tenn. & C. & Wills Valley R. R. Chattanooga & Cleve'd R. R. East Tenn. & Georgia R. R.	Selma to Gadsden..... Gadsden to Chattanooga..... Chattanooga to Cleveland..... Cleveland to Knoxville.....	1
Mobile via Selma, Montevallo, Decatur to Nashville.	Alabama & Tenn. River R. R. Alabama Central R. R. Do. do. Tenn. Southern Cent. R. R. Tenn. and Alabama R. R. Nashville and Hender'n Edge- field and Kentucky R. R. Evansville and Crawford R. Terre Haute and Rich'd R. R. New Albany and Salem R. R.	Selma to Montevallo..... Montevallo to Decatur..... Decatur to State line..... State line to Columbia..... Columbia to Nashville..... Nashville to Henderson..... Henderson to Evansville..... Evansville to Terre Haute..... Terre Haute to Greencastle..... Greencastle to L. Michigan	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
Mobile via Selma and Nashville to Louisville, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dunkirk and New-York.	Louisville and Nashville R. R. Louisville and Cincinnati R. R. Cleveland, Col. and Cin. R. R. Cleveland and Erie R. R. Erie and North East R. R. New-York and Erie R. R.	Nashville to Louisville..... Louisville to Cincinnati..... Cincinnati to Cleveland..... Cleveland to Erie..... Erie to Dunkirk..... Dunkirk to New-York.....	1 1 1 1 1 1
Via same and Buffalo, Albany to New-York.	Erie and North East R. R. New-York Central R. R. Hudson River R. R.	Dunkirk to Buffalo..... Buffalo to Albany..... Albany to New-York.....	1 1 1
Via same and Albany to Boston.	Western R. R.	Albany to Boston.....	1
Mobile via Selma Nashville and Cincinnati to Baltimore.	Marietta & Clev. & Branch R. B. and O and North Western R.	Cincinnati to Parkersburg..... Parkersburg to Baltimore.....	1 1
Mobile via Selma Nashville, Cincinnati and Pittsburg to Philadelphia.	Little Miami and Columbus R. Steubenville and Indiana R. R. Pittsburg and Steubenville Pennsylvania R. R.	Cincinnati to Columbus..... Columbus to Steubenville..... Steubenville to Pittsburg..... Pittsburg to Philadelphia.....	1 1 1 1
Mobile via Selma Nashville, Cincinnati, Niagara Falls to Toronto, Montreal and Quebec.	Buffalo, Niag. F. and Lewiston Great Western R. R. Great Western R. R. Grand Trunk R. R. Grand Trunk R. R.	Buffalo to Suspension B'e..... Susp. B'e to Hamilton..... Hamilton to Toronto..... Toronto to Montreal..... Montreal to Quebec.....	1 1 1 1 1

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

THE *Southern Convention* met, according to the announcement in our last number, at Vicksburg, on the 9th day of May; but we regret the necessity of postponing to our next issue an account of its most interesting proceedings. All of the more Southern slaveholding States were represented, some, it is true, very meagerly, but others largely. It has seldom been our lot to meet in deliberation a finer body of men, morally or intellectually, and we shall not soon forget the many pleasant interchanges of courtesy and kindness which were enjoyed. That there were some distractions might have been apprehended from the character of the subjects discussed, but these were evanescent, and left, we are well aware, no sting behind. There are always excitable temperaments in public assemblies, especially at the South, who mean well, but in the ardor of debate are not easily kept within the restraints of rule, and it would often be very unjust to judge them harshly. In every other respect they are law-abiding men and good citizens.

The following is a brief summary of the proceedings at Vicksburg:

The Convention was called together by the Mayor, the Hon. John A. Jones, of Georgia, being requested to act as temporary chairman, and Gen. W. H. McCordle of Mississippi, as Secretary.

A Committee on Organization was raised, which consisted of Col. S. R. Adams and Col. J. N. Davis of Mississippi, J. B. Allen and C. W. Dudley, of South Carolina, John Delafield and B. B. Dill, of Tennessee, M. C. McLemore, of Alabama, D. M. Whaley, of Texas, A. B. Amaker, of Florida, C. A. Bruslé and T. B. Hatch, of Louisiana, W. S. Morton and John A. Jones, of Georgia.

A Committee on Business was raised, which consisted of J. D. B. De Bow and C. A. Bruslé, of Louisiana, J. N. Davis and W. H. Johnson, of Mississippi, D. M. Whaley, of Texas, J. N. Lipscomb and J. Read, of South Carolina, W. S. Morton and John A. Jones, of Georgia, John Delafield and N. S. Renedu, of Tennessee, M. C. McLemore, of Alabama, A. P. Amaker, of Florida.

The following permanent officers were elected:

FOR PRESIDENT.

Gen. CHARLES CLARKE, of Mississippi.

FOR VICE-PRESIDENTS.

Hon. JOHN A. JONES, of Georgia.
Gen. O. E. EDWARDS, of South Carolina.
Col. B. F. DILL, of Tennessee.
D. M. WHALEY, of Texas.
Hon. H. S. BENNETT, of Mississippi.
Col. A. P. AMAKER, of Florida.
M. C. McLEMORE, of Alabama.
T. C. SCARBROUGH, of Louisiana.

SECRETARIES.

Gen. W. H. McCARDLE, of Mississippi.
JAMES FARROW, of South Carolina.
MILTON A. HAYNES, of Tennessee.

The Convention was in session five days, and passed several resolutions of an important character. That which related to the Slave Trade, and which alone occupied four out of the five days, was in the following words:

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, all laws, State or federal, prohibiting the African Slave Trade, ought to be repealed.

It was adopted by the following vote, each State casting its federal vote:

	Apt.	No.
Alabama.....	9.....	
Arkansas.....	4.....	
South Carolina.....	4.....	4
Louisiana.....	6.....	
Texas.....	6.....	
Tennessee.....		12
Georgia.....	10.....	
Florida.....		3
Mississippi.....	7.....	
	44.....	19

The Convention adjourned to meet at Atlanta, Georgia, on the second Monday of November, 1860.

In our next we shall endeavor to furnish a synopsis of the debates, and a full account of what was done at the Convention. We have only space at present for the excellent valedictory remarks of the President, Gen. Clarke, who won many laurels by his high and distinguished bearing and great ability as a presiding officer:

I must express my thanks, gentlemen, for the kind manner in which you have expressed toward me, your feeling. I assure you, that although I have no conception that I merit the compliment, I have, at least, endeavored to deserve it. I have presided over your deliberations with what little ability I possess, with a sincere desire to be impartial, just and equal to all. In the administration of my duties, surrounded, as you have all witnessed, by gentlemen of all sorts of opinions, each of them wishing to advocate his own views, with

set of rules established for our government, relying only on the good sense of the Convention, in which I found a rock of safety; and on the general rules of parliamentary law, having no sergeant-at-arms or doorkeeper or officer to sustain me, nothing but the force of moral opinion, which I knew would be found in the hearts of American men, I have been able to preserve order. (Applause.)

This has been to me a source of great gratification, not that it displayed any quality in myself, but because it showed that American gentlemen, Southern men, who meet together to deliberate on matters of high import, no matter how some few may attempt to disturb their deliberations, will always sustain the right, and that the men who thus attempt to disturb their deliberations will fail. (Applause.) I assure you, gentlemen, that during your deliberations, nothing has happened in the slightest degree to mar the even and kind tenor of my feelings to this body, and that toward no one who has deliberated with you, whether now present or absent, have I the slightest unkind feeling, and I think I may safely say in my own conscience, that I have not intended to give any one the slightest cause for unkind feeling toward me.

Toward yourself I have that feeling of regard which is not often acquired on such very short associations. I see gentlemen here whom I have never seen before—gentlemen from parts so distant that I will never, probably, see many of them again. If I shall ever meet you again, gentlemen, my hand will be in yours, and my heart will go with it. And in the great east, that may never I forget, and while I meet you will be based on the same soil as myself, that hand will be with you, and I will march with you shoulder to shoulder, I don't land me!

To the men here, you have a wife and place, and a home to go to, home, and now you feel all this, when you have no home, and I wish you day after day, and no happier could you find them. (Applause.)

The following works have been laid upon our desk:

- 1.—*A Collection of Poems* by J. BARRON Hope, author of *Lioni di Monata*, &c. Richmond, Va., 1859: A Morris.

Mr. Hope is one of our sweetest Southern poets, and has already taken high rank in the world of letters. The little volume before us contains his admirable poems recited at Jamestown, at William and Mary College, and at the base of Crawford's Equestrian Statue of Washington. It contains also several miscellaneous odes of great excellence and beauty.

- 2.—*Shakespeare's Legal Acquirements* considered, by JOHN LORR CAMPBELL, LL. D. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 1859.

The object of this work, which is written in a very lively and spirited manner, is to show the very extensive legal attainments of Shakespeare, and or that purpose the author

examines his several plays and poems, wherever the bard has occasion to refer to courts or juries, or to the practice of law among lawyers. It is certainly a curious and entertaining work.

- 3.—*Home Memories, or Echoes of a Mother's Voice*, by MRS. CARLY BATES. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 1859.

This romance commends itself as from the well-known pen of the author of "Children at Home," "Working and Waiting," &c.

- 4.—*Life of James Watt, with Selections from his Correspondence*, by J. P. MURHEAD, M. A. Illustrated. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 1859.

It is important to the world that they should be familiar with the labors of one who has done so much to advance its civilization as James Watt, the author of the application of steam. Scarcely a century ago the powers of this great agent were almost unknown, while now in Great Britain alone, in its practical application, it is equivalent to the labor of four hundred millions of men.

- 5.—*The Annals of Northern History, Biographical and Anecdotal*, by J. B. BELTON O'NEAL, LL. D. Charleston: S. G. Courtney & Co., 1859.

The Messrs. Courtney deserve much credit for the handsome manner in which they have issued this work from the pen of Judge O'Neal. It will make a valuable addition to the Eastern libraries of South Carolina, and will furnish us at an early day the material for an article which must prove very interesting. The Courtneys are enterprising young men, who are doing much for the publishing business of the South, and have issued, already, many valuable works. They have, besides, one of the largest and best selected book establishments in the country.

- 6.—*Selections for Sabbath Reading, and Brief Miscellaneous Essays, Moral and Religious*, by W. J. TUCK, M. D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. Memphis: Cleaves & Guion.

Dr. Tuck is a practising physician of Memphis, and one of our early friends, with whom we had the pleasure recently of again shaking hands. He is a fine scholar and a gentleman of highly established moral and religious character. In the little work before us, which is superlatively issued from the press, he indulges himself in ramblings throughout the whole

religious world, culling gems from every quarter, which gladden in his coronet, and are set happily in his own handiwork. We know of no companion for the fireside of every Christian, or even well-ordered family, which is entitled to higher commendation, and we trust that the good offices of our friend, in this particular, will be rewarded by substantial fruits.

7.—*Sixty Years' Gleanings from Life, Harvest, a Genuine Autobiography* by JOHN BROWN, Proprietor of the University Billiard Rooms, Cambridge, England. New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 1859.

A remarkable book in every respect, and curiously interesting from beginning to end. John Brown lived "with all his might," and the "Life" he writes is, in its abundance and variety of tragic and comic ups-and-downs, as good as a play.

As a neglected child, a "juvenile offender," an ingenious vagabond, a shoemaker, a soldier, an actor, a sailor, a publican, a billiard-room keeper, a town councillor, and an author, Mr. Brown has seen the world for sixty years; and he unhesitatingly describes all he has seen, with fidelity of memory and straightforward simplicity of style.

8.—*Probable Fall in the Value of Gold; the Commercial and Social Consequences which may ensue, and the Measures which it invites*, by MICHEL CHEVALIER, member of the Institute of France. 1859: D. Appleton & Co.

This work is upon a subject which all will admit is of the greatest consequence to the civilized world, and is translated by the celebrated Richard Cobden, of England, who adds a preface. It will furnish us the basis of an article hereafter.

M. Chevalier is distinguished among the economists of the world as one of the most earnest of living writers, in favor of free trade, and as the champion of every cause which tends to promote the progress of civilization and the best interests of humanity, and his work will be sought with eagerness by merchants and statesmen everywhere.

9.—*Principles and Practice of embanking lands from River Floods, as applied to the Levees of the Mississippi*, by WILLIAM HEWSON, Civil Engineer, assisted by his Brother, M. BUTT HEWSON. New-York: J. J. Reed, 1859.

The Messrs. Hewson are very experienced engineers, and have given great attention to the dynamics of the Mississippi. The results of their knowledge and experience on this subject, as given in the present volume, will prove of the greatest value to the people of the Southwest, and without doubt it will be largely sought for. We have not space at present to enter into an analysis of the merits of the work, but will do so hereafter. Mr. Butt Hewson has been for many years an occasional contributor to the pages of the Review, and is known to its readers as an accomplished writer. At no more opportune time than the present, when so considerable a part of our wealthiest districts are suffering from inundation, could a work of this character have been issued from the press.

10.—*Songs and Poems of the South*, by A. B. MECK, author of the "Red Eagle," &c., &c.

11.—*Romantic Passages in Southwestern History, including Orations, Sketches and Essays*, by A. B. MECK, 3d edition.

These volumes reach us through the courtesy of the author and that of the publishers, S. H. Goetzel & Co., of Mobile, Alabama.

Judge Meek has long since established a reputation for himself as one of the most gifted and accomplished of the literary men of the South. In these volumes he has collected many of the effusions of his pen which were scattered through the periodicals and other publications of the day. There are some omitted, whose absence we regret. Among his historical labors we find much interesting material which it is our intention to revert to again, in an article on Alabama.

Judge Meek has now in preparation a work which will be issued the present season, on Alabama, which will furnish the most complete and valuable history of the State that has yet appeared.

He is a chaste and beautiful writer, and a reliable authority, as we have on the evidence of Bancroft, Simms, Irving, &c.

12.—*The New American Cyclopaedia—a Popular Dictionary of General Knowledge*. Edited by George Ripley and Chas. A. Dana. Vol. V. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 1859.

Thanks to Mr. S. Coleman, of 30 Camp street, New-Orleans, who is general agent for the Southwest, for the first five volumes of this most invaluable

work, which carries the material partly through the letter C. The whole work will be completed in twelve volumes, and we adopt heartily the opinions which have passed in regard to it by our contemporaries of the *Richmond Enquirer* and the *Southern Literary Messenger*:

It is really what the title declares it—a *New and American Cyclopædia*. The great defect of the English and Continental collections lies in this department; they do not devote much space to recent wants or men, and scarcely any at all to subjects connected with American topography, history, commerce, or general national advancement. The editors of the present work seem fully impressed with the importance of these subjects and determined to supply the *lacunæ*. The articles upon American men, wants, productions, etc., are very full and carefully prepared. The population, white and black, of every county in the South is given.

The work has been undertaken, we are confident, with a conscientious desire to furnish the great body of American readers with a trustworthy source of information upon all subjects connected with the progress of civilization, and so far has been prosecuted with the most gratifying success. In the volume now before us, there is much new and valuable material illustrative of American affairs, which may be sought for in vain in any English Encyclopædia, while the subjects arising out of the history of the old world have been treated with a freshness and spirit that cannot fail to be relished by all English readers.

The following original articles are necessarily laid over for want of space, but will appear in our next:

- 1.—A Short Sketch on the Mississippi river, and several other valuable contributions on overflows and levees.
- 2.—The Cotton Crop, by B. F. Dickson.
- 3.—Agricultural Meteorology, by Dr. Barton.
- 4.—Early Settlement of Tennessee, by Prof. Geo. S. Smith.
- 5.—State Constitutions, by M. L. Givens.
- 6.—High Prices of Slaves, by a Floridian.
- 7.—The Character of Human Progress, by W. S. Grayson, of Mississippi.
- 8.—Multiplicity of Law Books, by Geo. Fitzhugh, of Virginia.
- 9.—Buckle's History of Civilization, by Dr. Kilpatrick, of Louisiana.
- 10.—Notes on Memphis, by Prof. Stockrath.

The following pamphlets have been laid on our table, and will receive appropriate notices hereafter:

- 1.—Letters to the Southern People concerning the act of Congress and Treaties in relation to the Slave Trade. Charleston: Walker, Evans & Co.
- 2.—Slavery and the Remedy, by Sam. North.
- 3.—Special Reports of S. C. Legislature, on the Slave Trade.
- 4.—Sixth Annual Report of the Northeast and Southwest Alabama Railroad Company.
- 5.—Review of an Article on the Slave Trade, by Rev. J. B. Adger.
- 6.—Reports of the City Council of Charleston on the subject of Yellow Fever, Quarantine, Burial of the Dead, etc.

7.—Address of I. N. Davis, of the Slave Trade.

8.—Sixth Annual Report of the Atlantic Railroad.

Our acknowledgments in an especial manner to the Eustis, for a great number of Executive and Congressional documents, which make an addition to our library. Thos. Slidell has also placed us under obligations at sundry times.

In the April number of the Review we referred to the action of the Secretary of War upon the deepening of the passes on the Mississippi river, and inadvertently committed an error, which we now beg to correct and will check in our next.

Since the publication of our Review, the Editor has been on an extended trip into the States, viz: Jackson, Vicksburg, Mississippi, Mobile, Charleston, etc., the notes of which will be preserved, and will incorporate in the July number. For the many courtesies received at the hands of our kind friends, we cannot find time to express the utmost gratitude.

Prof. George Stockrath, a literary and business reviewer, and who is the author of the papers in our last issue, is now in Charleston, New-Orleans, and will be in Mississippi, and will be in Tennessee and Virginia, and will be in the hands of all of the friends of the Review.

Now that the season of the year is about to open, we place in our hands the advertisements in the present number, and view of—

- 1.—The Hot Springs of Virginia.
- 2.—The Healing Springs of North Carolina.
- 3.—Old Point Comfort.

and believe that nothing can be added by us, in connection with those well established reviews.

Subscribers will continue to send their letters to the office at New-Orleans, and will be glad to appeal to our friends to aid in increasing the circulation and sphere of usefulness of the Review.

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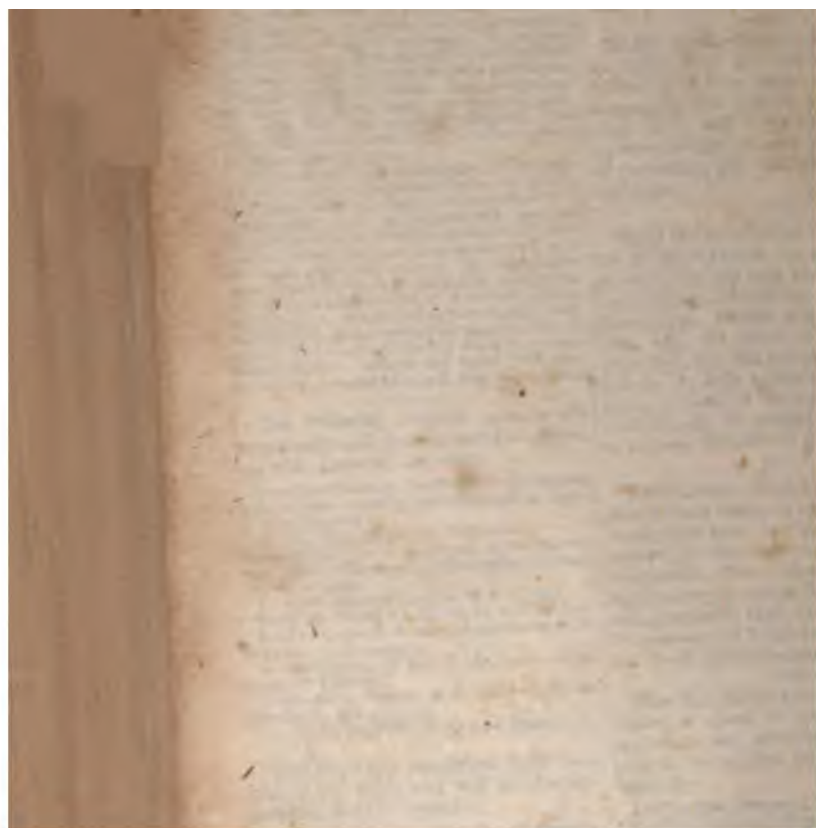
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